

The Bulletin

OF THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF

Secondary-School Principals

Proceedings
of the

**Thirty-fourth
Annual Convention**

MUNICIPAL AUDITORIUM

Kansas City, Missouri

February 18-22, 1950

Part One

VOLUME 34

MARCH, 1950

NUMBER 169

Service Organ for American Secondary Schools

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SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS**
of the
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1949-1950
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Issued Eight Times a Year

\$5.00 a Year

One Dollar Postpaid

Monthly, October to May Inclusive

Published at Washington, D. C., by the National Association of Secondary-School Principals of the National Education Association
1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C.

Entered as second-class matter, November 8, 1938, at the post office at Washington, D. C., and additional entry at Berrien Springs, Michigan, under the Act of August 12, 1912. Acceptance for mailing at special rate of postage, provided for in Section 1103, Act of February 28, 1925, authorized November 8, 1938.

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A Department of Secondary Education of the
NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION
Issued Monthly, October to May Inclusive

Volume 34

MARCH, 1950

Number 169

The Proceedings of the Thirty-Fourth Annual Convention
FEBRUARY 18 to 22, 1950 KANSAS CITY, MISSOURI

CONVENTION THEME: Better Schools Through
Better Leadership

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THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF
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Proceedings of the
Thirty-Fourth Annual Convention

of the

National Association of Secondary-School Principals

Municipal Auditorium, Kansas City, Missouri

February 18 to 22, 1950

CONVENTION THEME:

BETTER SCHOOLS THROUGH BETTER LEADERSHIP

DUE to the large number of participants on the program of the Convention, the Proceedings will appear as two volumes. This issue of **THE BULLETIN** is the first volume. It includes the Proceedings of the Discussion Groups held on Monday and nine Tuesday afternoon Groups.

The April issue of **THE BULLETIN**, as the second volume, will contain the Proceedings of all the General Sessions, the Business Meeting, the Annual Financial Report of the Association, the balance of the Tuesday afternoon Discussion Groups, and such other activities of the Convention as they occurred.

THE National Association of Secondary-School Principals is the department of secondary-school administration of the National Education Association of the United States. It is the professional organization for all who are interested and engaged in the administration of secondary education. The Association publishes **THE BULLETIN** and **STUDENT LIFE** eight times, monthly, during the school year from October to May inclusive. It conducts research studies secondary education and has many services for members. Membership is five dollars per year, payable to the Executive Secretary, Paul E. Elicker, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C.

The following is a report of this Thirty-Fourth Annual Convention held at the Municipal Auditorium, Kansas City, Missouri, from February 18 to 22, 1950.

The National Association of Secondary-School Principals does not necessarily endorse any individual group or organization or opinion, ideas, or judgments expressed in any of the papers encompassed in these Proceedings.

Discussion Group Proceedings

Monday, February 20, 2:30-4:15 P. M.

Group I—West Concourse Vestibule

TOPIC: Principals Discuss Their Problems With Their Superintendents.

CHAIRMAN: *Lloyd S. Michael*, Superintendent, Township Schools, and Principal, Township High School, Evanston, Illinois.

PANEL OF PRINCIPALS:

B. L. Pehrson, Principal, Crosby-Ironton High School, Crosby, Minnesota.

R. G. Chamberlin, Principal, Rufus King High School, Milwaukee, Wisconsin.

PANEL OF SUPERINTENDENTS:

Chester W. Holmes, Superintendent of Schools, Malden, Massachusetts.

E. W. Montgomery, Superintendent, Union High Schools, and President of Junior College, Phoenix, Arizona.

In this panel a frank presentation was made of the most crucial administrative problems that principals discuss with their superintendents.

Group II—Room 503

CHAIRMAN: *Alfred H. Skogsberg*, Principal, Junior High School, Bloomfield, New Jersey.

INTERROGATORS AND CONSULTANTS:

Harrison H. Van Cott, Acting Director, Division of Secondary Education, State Education Department, Albany, New York.

L. L. Myers, Principal, W. H. Kirk Junior High School, Cleveland, Ohio.

What Are the Characteristics of a Modern Junior High School?

ROBERT B. ABBOTT

THE junior high school is characterized by having students who are adolescent or, more precisely, are in early adolescence; who are ages 12-15 for the most part; who are in grades 7-9 usually; and who have the problems that concern early adolescents. It has several students who are delinquent; several who may become delinquent; many who have serious emotional problems and a great many who will have social or emotional problems of great concern to themselves during their years in junior high. Its students have a wide range of

Robert B. Abbott is Principal of the Frick Junior High School, Oakland, California.

ability—wider than that of the elementary school contributing to it. They have a rather wide range in social classes no matter what type of district in which the school is located. The home conditions of its students will vary considerably and will play a very important part in the eventual adjustment of each individual. All in all, the major characteristic of the junior high school is that it brings together in the school youth who are, or soon will be, in the early adolescent stage of their lives—the age at which, for the bulk of them, the greatest amount of adjustment (to physical growth, to their peers, to the opposite sex, to adults) takes place. In no other school group do so many problems of adjustment occur.

A second characteristic of all junior high schools is that like the elementary school, but unlike the senior high school, it includes in school almost all the youth of this age who are in the community. Elimination of those who are little able to profit by schooling, as it is ordinarily offered, has not occurred.

If we should change the title of this talk to be "The Characteristics of a Good Junior High School," we would find that the good junior high school would be greatly concerned with (1) the adjustments being made by adolescents and (2) the adapting of the school's educational program to *all* its students.

MAJOR ADJUSTMENTS OF YOUTH

We may well pause to list some of the major adjustments or felt needs of adolescent youth. The six listed below will serve our purposes: Adolescent youth

1. desires more independence—a new relationship with adults, especially at home.
2. desires to attain recognition by and a standing with his teen-age peers.
3. desires satisfactory boy-girl relationships.
4. desires social activities of all types.
5. is concerned about his physical growth and development; desires to be strong or comely.
6. is attaining new values and is questioning old values—moral, social, religious.

The good junior high school is concerned with aiding students in meeting these felt needs as well as attaining the objectives set up by our society such as "the imperative needs of youth": salable skills; good health; democratic citizenship; family life skills and ideals; consumer intelligence; scientific knowledge; appreciation of art, literature, music, and nature; using leisure time well, respect for others, ethical values, co-operative abilities; and rational thinking ability.

CHARACTERISTICS OF A GOOD SCHOOL

The good junior high school probably has several of the characteristics listed below. Probably no junior high school has all of them. Each of several good junior high schools of which I know differs so greatly from the others that it is difficult to determine just what it is that characterizes the good school. I offer the following as a personal analysis of elements that go to make these schools good, or if you prefer, modern junior high schools. (I will not attempt to include the equipment or building facilities needed.)

1. A noticeable atmosphere of good will exists; a total emotional climate that bespeaks attitudes of team work, confidence, and harmony between students and faculty; among faculty members; and among student, faculty, and administration.
2. The teachers understand adolescents. This understanding goes beyond a theoretical knowledge of their drives, interests, and problems to a sympathy based on intimate knowledge of individuals. A faith in youth greater than knowledge is often required. They do not take anti-social acts of students as personal affronts; they recognize the effect of home problems; they realize these youth are children in many respects and nearly adults in others. (The teacher's understanding, does not, however, direct him from expecting work of which the youth is capable. He is sympathetic, but firm.)
3. The good school has a faculty in which most of the teachers are well-adjusted (personally), love teaching, have security in teaching, and have self-assurance and courage in attacking problems. It does not retreat to conventional programs. The teachers recognize that many youth will have serious problems at this age; that eruptions of one kind or another are to be expected; and that many youth have problems which are not problems to teachers. They have a considerable confidence that these problems can be alleviated even though imbedded in family or community conditions. They desire to conduct a school that does not make serious problem situations arise. Free discussion takes place before major projects are undertaken. Its members have professional competence.
4. In the good school the faculty, by and large, has an experimental attitude. It believes it is going on to better things. It has an interest in trying its own ideas; is working on its problems actively; its members enjoy working together. It recognizes individual differences in teachers and appreciates their individual contribution to the school. The teachers have confidence in each other and in the administration of the school. Its experimental attitude is tempered with good common sense. It attempts to improve only the next thing it can successfully improve; is realistic in terms of its community, student body, facilities, faculty members. (Many a school has been discouraged while trying to improve the experiences it provides for students by tackling a program for which the faculty is not yet ready.)
5. Students have faith in the faculty and in the administration—a belief that they individually and collectively will get a square deal and that the school has a warm, personal interest in each of them. It appears to them that many worth-while things are going on in the school and that they have a part in the "goings on."
6. Students are known as persons in the good school. Each child is a person—first, a student second. The school takes all possible measures to know its individual student members and to treat them as persons. Each classroom

teacher is a counselor in fact. Classes are as small as possible. The counseling plan is designed that counselors may know all their students by limiting numbers counseled and by providing that the counselors may have their own students in classes. Schools are, many of them, providing that a given teacher may have a given class for two or three periods which not only allows teachers to know students well, but also gives students more opportunity to appreciate each other. They are also breaking down closely drawn subject-matter lines.

The so-called "Intermediate School" has one probable advantage over the junior high school in that its half-day-with-one-teacher plan allows more opportunity for pupils to be treated and known as individuals. The subject-centered junior high school in copying the senior high school is ill-adapted to early adolescent needs.

Other schools use group counseling effectively; use the testing program to help youth; do not let the cumulative record program run the counselors, but see that it contributes to aid child growth and development. These good schools are shifting from considering education as a process of learning subjects to that of considering education as a process of guiding the growth and development of youth.

7. It is a well-organized, well-run school which avoids over-regulation and relies on building up student standards of behavior through discussion—a 'we feeling' and school pride, rather than on rules. Pupils participate in areas they accept as important and which they can successfully administer. Activities are scheduled to prevent confusion and to equalize teacher load. Teachers participate in administration through advisory councils.
8. It offers a program well balanced between five major areas—general education, personal interest offerings (electives), health and recreation, prevocational offerings, and extracurricular activities. Careful consideration has been given not so much to time allotment in these various areas, but rather to what the essential content (and methods) shall be that will best serve the present and future needs of youth. It includes not only the general education program, which has had much emphasis of late, but also as wide an offering of opportunities for exploring abilities and satisfying personal interests as is possible.
9. It realizes that the needs of youth of this age may be met not only by classroom offerings, but by extra-classroom opportunities and activities such as service to the school (library, traffic, decoration, clean-up, monitoring) clubs, sports, dancing, assemblies, school government. It makes an effort to provide these activities for a very considerable proportion of the members of the student body.
10. Many good schools are utilizing community participation in one form or another, such as parent advisory councils; special committees on such new

offerings as family-life education; student-aid committees for those needing jobs; discussion groups; combined student-faculty-parent committees on student activities. In any case, the school keeps parents and community informed on its program and plans and utilizes speakers and field-trip opportunities in the community.

11. Its classroom activities include pupil participation (planning, executing, conducting) as well as teacher direction. A happy student body is one in which students have objectives with which they are concerned. Center-of-interest type activity in the classroom results in objectives on the part of students (which need not be the same as the teachers' objectives for them). Not all classes lend themselves to this, but pupil participation can be obtained on some level in all classes. In certain courses concerned with pupil problems it can enrich the content of the course immeasurably. Interest inventories, personality tests, and sociograms are means of student self-study. Problems of daily living are uncovered and utilized. Uniform procedures and assignments, into which mere numbers of students tend to push a teacher, are avoided.
12. The good school is characterized by its effort to include materials and problems which concern youth themselves. These range from problems of manners and customs, health, relationship with parents or siblings, money, boy-girl relationships, and the family car to movies, radio, good books, and good study techniques. It often approaches these obliquely and in "regular" courses, having discovered that orientation courses do not always offer sufficient content for students' satisfaction.
13. The school plans for the education of those not likely to stay long in high school. It is most concerned with wholesome citizenship attitudes on the part of these students. It is concerned that opportunities be given for obtaining information relative to: what Americans do for a living; job getting and holding; spending, borrowing, and saving money; family living; wholesome recreation; and pre-vocational training.
14. The school has a program that aids the delinquent to make adjustment. It avoids action which will tend to make him a poorer citizen and attempts to dissipate his prejudices against law, order, and government. It has its ear tuned to: "What, by his action, is the delinquent telling us is wrong with the school?" He reacts aggressively to frustrations. Can they be reduced?
15. The good school is actively concerned in discovering pupils with problems and in aiding them to solve the problems. The counseling staff, all teachers, and the principal are on the lookout for pupils with problems (as opposed to those who are problems to the faculty) and utilizes all possible help—parents, city guidance staff, and community facilities.
16. A good junior high school is continually at work on the content and the methods of its courses. It is tending toward a broadening of courses (away

from closely drawn subject-matter lines); toward wide use of books; toward utilization of many other materials (motion pictures, exhibit materials, field trips, speakers); toward greater individualization of class contribution and of assignments; toward pupil participation in planning the work of the class; toward real motivation and less use of grades or marks or other punitive means; and away from question-answer techniques and toward class discussion; and toward co-operative work rather than competitive work in class. It utilizes dramatization, folk dancing, art, music and music appreciation, class museums, discussion panels, and debates.

17. Some junior high schools have attained a status in which they are institutions in their own right. They have thrown off the responsibilities that are those of the high school and are concentrating on serving the youth in their age group. They are not partly high school, partly elementary school. They have a segment of the school population having its own characteristics and needs and are working to meet these needs. They take the students as they are on coming from the elementary school and fit a program to them; are not too concerned with college preparatory training; avoid being "hurdle schools."

CONCLUSIONS

The modern junior high school then is geared to early adolescent youth. It provides continued growth in the fundamental beginning at the point to which the elementary school has been able to take each pupil. It provides guidance—group and individual. It offers opportunities for discovering interests and abilities. It provides many extracurricular type activities which offer opportunities for developing leadership, group participation, and boy-girl participation. Its classroom activities are challenging; are individualized in so far as contribution to class work is concerned and at the same time allow for much group work; follow or arouse student interests; often utilize a wide variety of activities; and encourage wide reading, discussion, and development of values. It provides for education in the common learnings—skills, information, attitudes—in areas such as family life, consumer education, health, and citizenship in a democracy. It adapts its methods, materials, and guidance to the nature and needs of adolescents. It believes that a school that is interesting and challenging and provides many experiences suitable to this age, also, is making its best contribution to the youth's adult needs.

What Are the Characteristics of a Modern Junior High School?

A. H. LAUCHNER

THE topic, "Characteristics of a Modern Junior High School," is somewhat misleading. When an institution is so young as to have had its entire growth and development within the lifetime of most of us, the institution itself may well be looked upon as modern. To clarify the subject a bit, let us say we are speaking of the junior high school of nineteen hundred fifty. That's modern enough. What are characteristics of today's *in-between* school?

"It isn't that we do not know what to do, but rather that we do not do what we know." That statement, first uttered by someone unknown to me, expresses aptly the situation in which many of us junior high-school principals now find ourselves. We know what we think our school should accomplish, and we're pretty well agreed on methods of implementing our philosophy. In my files is the evidence supporting that statement.

During the past two or three years, I have been assembling articles on the junior high school, obtaining handbooks from representative schools of the nation, and pestering principals with questionnaires—all with one purpose in mind. I have been seeking answers to two questions; namely, (1) What should a junior high school have as its goals? (2) How may those goals be implemented?

We are in general agreement on major matters. In fact, we have been holding numerous views in common for many, many years. I should say that well over three fourths of the ideas presented within the last two or three years are mere rehashings of what good old Professor Clement taught some of us in a study of the junior high school at the University of Illinois well over a decade ago. (Many of the original goals of the junior high still hold.)

Yes, we feel that we know what the junior high school should accomplish—and we think we know how it should be done—but we do not always practice what we preach. *The Junior High sounds pretty in purpose but poor in practice.* If that be true, why is it the case?

1. We have aped the senior high school. From the beginning, our older brothers in the "upper part" of the secondary-school program have basked in better buildings, salvaged more salary, engineered more equipment, paraded more press releases, and otherwise tended to "outrank" us in prestige. As a result, perhaps in a move toward self-defense, we have proceeded forthwith to make little senior high schools of intermediate schools that were never meant to follow the pattern of the older brothers.

A. H. Lauchner is Principal of Thornburn Junior High, Urbana, Illinois, and President of the Association of Junior High Schools of Illinois.

Sometimes I have the feeling that the name, "Junior high school," was poorly chosen; the "high-school part" is too suggestive. Last year, at our Chicago meetings, someone made the remark that many junior high schools "look like and smell like" senior high schools. It's a serious statement for, if true, it means we are not doing what we claim we want to do.

2. We have failed to sell the philosophy and practices, in which we believe, to parents and teachers. School changes come slowly; there is a lag that's pitiful. All the while we have been making such tremendous changes in the world of everyday living, we have been operating thousands of schools and schoolrooms about like we did when the junior high school was first established some forty years ago. We continue to rate both parents and teachers according to the manner in which children whom they direct behave. We are prone to rate teachers by the quantity of facts and skills pupils master under their direction. Usually, by *good* teacher is meant that one who holds classes in which pupils "behave" and "pass." Through the years, both teachers and parents have tended toward praising that pupil who sits still, follows directions faithfully, bothers no other pupil, keeps out of quarrels, and otherwise makes it easy for us. All too frequently, we have attached disapproval in such manner as to infer no pupil is to argue, talk loudly, engage in any mischief, day-dream, work at any speed except his best possible rate, walk too rapidly, or otherwise, be natural if he wants to be rated well in conduct, deportment, citizenship, etc.

All of this is tradition, and many junior high schools have held close. Those, that have, are not even approaching ideals set up for the junior high school; they are clinging to early practices of elementary schools, and the poorer ones at that. Many principals and teachers have been too concerned with possible "parent talk" regarding activities, projects, and the like; there has been some fear that "folks will raise a fuss if the junior high school starts sticking in frills and slighting the three r's." Numerous teachers have tended to resist the assembly-club-council-home-room-socialized recitation pupil-centered plan of things. There are several reasons for this. First of all, classroom teachers have gone to normal schools or college, amassed twenty to sixty hours in a major subject area, and come forth thrilled with what they have been taught and eager to teach it to boys and girls. They believe in their fields of specialization.

Then, when some of us present the suggestion that there should be a cutting down on the amount of time in the old-subject areas in order that there may be opportunity for more clubs, more committee meetings, more this, and more that, they are naturally deeply concerned. That's when one is likely to hear the expression: "Let's just have school for a while." It's an honest difference of opinion by teachers who are neither seeking to be stubborn nor old-fashioned.

Second, teachers are frequently luke-warm to proposals for greater pupil freedom, more attention to individual differences, increased stress on socialized

activities, and other suggestions common to the junior high school for disciplinary reasons, and because of a latent trend toward superficiality.

Many of them have had experiences in such matters. Some of them report that teachers "wear themselves out" trying to maintain some semblance of order. There is talk of confusion, lack of purpose, *etc.* These teachers have a point.

But the plain, blunt truth is that real, honest-to-goodness junior high schools will exist only where folks catch the vision of a position somewhere between theory and present practices. A characteristic of many junior high schools of nineteen hundred fifty is a planned program for bringing such a vision to everyone concerned.

3. Junior high-school programs cost money, more of it than many school districts have been willing to provide. Lack of funds with which to purchase equipment and supplies essential to the carrying out of a broad program has hindered thousands of junior high schools from achieving goals. Some day patrons are going to learn that junior high schools (and elementary schools) will do a better job when they receive the sort of financial support usually accorded most senior high schools.

WHAT CAN BE ACCOMPLISHED?

Now what can be accomplished in a junior high school where there is no aping of the senior high school, where patrons and faculty see eye to eye on aims and methods, and where there are funds to cover costs of a full, rich program? Here are what might be some characteristics of such a school.

1. A recognition of the fact that we have been slaves to the textbook with the old-time question-and-answer method. A recognition of the fact that there is often very little to be said for covering a certain number of pages, completing a given set of exercises, or memorizing certain tables of facts. . . . if they are done for their own sake. An amending of the notion that geography is to accomplish certain things for pupils; science, another set; and literature, another. They are all interwoven; together they make the contribution.

2. Coupled with this recognition will come realization that many of the older subject areas have been accorded far too much time and attention. . . . followed by a willingness on the part of both parents and teachers to cut down on time allotments. Only by such trimming process does it become possible for the junior high school to work into its program those activities and experiences most of us are agreeing should be included. Any junior high-school principal with many years of experience has heard and reheard the old question regarding "time for all these activities." One answer lies in the giving up of the old cherished idea that each teacher's subject must meet five days each week. There is no sound argument for that viewpoint.

It's being done another way. Many schools are leading out in effecting groupings; they are weaving together certain subjects areas into core curricula

or common learnings, thereby realizing a saving on time. (This is a definite reversal of earlier claims that strict departmentalization was a strong argument for the junior high school.) Today many junior high schools are setting up programs, particularly in the seventh grade, which call for pupils to remain with one teacher (of common learning) for from one third to one half or more of the school day.

3. In junior high schools, where faculties have moved toward this changed viewpoint regarding the amount and type of dose to be administered in traditional subject fields, comes evidence that teachers in classrooms are adopting new methods. They are no longer making "listeners" of pupils; the emphasis is on developing "doers." (The outstanding criticism that has been made of the average teacher is that she talks too much. Many teachers are engaged this very day in the act of pouring fact after fact into minds which will retain only a small portion of what is poured.)

Classrooms are now scenes of pupil and committee reports, debates, discussion of movies seen or plays attended, arrangement of bulletin boards, preparation of projects, and other class activities which offer boys and girls opportunities to do things in which they are interested and have some ability. There is a standard of achievement for each one, based on his ability, needs, and interests, considered in light of what the teacher is able to get out of him. Sometimes we are prone to find fault with an indifferent pupil, all the while overlooking our own failure to lead and inspire. This is a harsh statement, but there is truth in it.

4. Since the new methods are making their way into classrooms, many changes have occurred in the appearance of these rooms. Grandpa, who grew up with desks fastened to the floor in very straight rows, would get some surprises were he to drop in for a visit. He might find the movable chair-desks arranged in a circle, rectangle, or oval, or in several smaller groupings. Pupils would be facing each other.

He would be in for other surprises too. Blackboard space is much less and bulletin board area greatly increased. There's a work-bench and other evidences of the living that's being done in the room. Grandpa would receive his rudest shock upon searching for teacher's desk. Yes, he would have to search, for the desk of today's junior high-school teacher is frequently in an inconspicuous spot, in keeping with her effort to put boys and girls to the fore and herself toward the background.

5. The modern junior high school provides real and true situations which call for reflective thinking. These situations are such that decisions made by pupils will actually count for something. To arrive at decisions about "make-believe" situations constitutes only a mock problem. Student councils, com-

mittees, and other groups need to find significance in what they are doing; then they will "see some sense" in the undertakings and learn from experience.

6. Were Grandpa to visit a good junior high of today, he would find teachers encouraging students to look upon change as worth while and urging them to want to experiment. It should be the thought of all that change may bring welcome news, and therefore, each pupil ought to strive to do, make, or say something different—to be original—as individual talents and inclinations may direct. It is experiencing that educates.

This means there will be encouragement and praise for projects, exhibits, displays, excursions, pupil inventions, and other activities which provide recognition of individual differences. Effects from pupil participation in experimentation are lasting. They are encouraged to study constantly, with the thought in mind of bringing about improvement. This involves serving man.

7. Perhaps one of the most important aspects of a modern junior high school is its effort in developing boys and girls in our way of life. We seek to turn out individuals who have achieved understanding, appreciation, and participation in democracy—in other words, men and women who are aware of and eager to perform civic responsibilities.

Such persons will recognize the right of groups to study the *status quo*, suggest changes, and strive to bring them about through the democratic process we know as majority decision. They will know and remember that decisions should be made in such manners as to exclude prejudice and tradition—those masters which rule the thinking of so many adults. They will recognize the right of the individual as against the "all for the state" regimes we've seen in Europe recently. They will recognize the fact that with liberties and privileges accorded the individual go duties and obligations—and they will be willing to accept the latter.

Pupils will not learn this from books or from statements of teachers; it can and will come through daily practice in democratic living in schools. (This should not be interpreted to mean that a group of pupils are to decide everything that's to be done in a school. The wisdom and maturity of the administrators and faculty members should be "looked up to" by young people. Democracy does not say that young and old should share equally in making decisions . . . and a failure to observe that fundamental has caused some schools to be frowned upon as having "gone off on a democratic tangent.") Democracy has balances—in school and out.

8. Strong efforts are being made to develop appreciations—for art, music, dramatics, and other intangibles. And we are going about it in such manner as to indicate that at long last we've discovered the fact one can't force appreciation upon boys and girls. Many, many situations which present opportunities for growth in appearance are arranged for junior high-school students. Day by day, boys and girls are privileged to see and hear choice programs.

Of far more importance, they are urged to take part in such activities, in order that appreciation may be "caught" and accepted.

Development of appreciation does not stop with the fine arts. There is serious attempt to have youth grow in appreciation for their classmates, of all social and economic levels, of all races and creeds—for school and home—for opportunity.

9. Another aspect of the modern junior high school is a positive program of pupil guidance and counseling. At this moment there exists sharp disagreement over the question of the part to be played by various individuals. Many schools feature the home-room teacher; others are using special teacher-counselors. Some have placed the responsibility in the hands of guidance directors and their assistants, and there are schools in which the deans perform guidance and counseling functions. I am inclined to state that there is no substitute for the home-room (or common learnings) teacher who is close to problems. She may need someone to whom she can turn for suggestions, but she is the one in best position to serve each pupil.

Obviously good guidance programs make use of community resources, along with their informational and exploratory courses. They make full use of radio, visual aids, informational folders, magazines, and publications for youth. They carry on testing programs designed to indicate pupil weaknesses and needs and maintain up-to-date cumulative records which are available to teachers at all times. They maintain a report system to parents, using written messages, parent-teacher conference, and other accepted practices. In all of this, the effort is to aid each individual to find himself.

10. Many authorities are now saying that the greatest single characteristic of a good junior high school is that it has an administration and faculty who study, plan, and work together continuously toward the making of a better school. One junior high-school principal wrote that his entire faculty enrolled in a university course on "The Early Adolescent." There was a remarkable change in the attitudes of some members of his staff, he reported. Another principal indicated "all teachers at work on common learnings." Yet another group mentioned was carrying on an organized study of "Democratic Processes Within the School."

There can be no end to teacher study; no teacher can afford to rely too greatly on experience and personal beliefs. Faculties which work out problems together in a spirit of give-and-take will tend to avoid conflicts which might cause schools to suffer. Faculty spirit can and does make or break a junior high school—or any other school, for that matter.

Among areas now receiving attention from entire teaching groups are: (1) aims of education; (2) philosophy of the junior high school (usually a particular junior high school); (3) correlation with the elementary school and senior high school; (4) the community; and (5) the junior high-school child.

IN CONCLUSION

Finally, let it be said that stone, brick, block linoleum, inter-communication systems, and all-blond furniture do not of themselves guarantee a good junior high school. Some of us who have been laboring in inelegant buildings may be inclined to think the guarantee is there, but our visits to and inspections of other junior high schools should disprove the idea.

Of the forty-seven junior high schools I have observed during the last few years, the institution with the most modern physical plant rated in the lowest quartile in efficiency. It had no morale. On the other hand, two of the very best junior high schools were housed in old buildings; each was making up in spirit and morale what it lacked in stone and mortar. "Clothes do not make the man" nor "feathers, the bird." In fact, some men with the clothes and some birds with the feathers have little else.

Yet, it must be admitted that fine facilities and excellent equipment help. A good junior high school has an auditorium, a gymnasium, a library with adjacent reading and browsing rooms, a visual aids room and equipment, rooms for administrative and counseling staff, suites of rooms for practical and fine arts, recreation rooms, a community room, and an adequate campus with shuffle board and tennis courts, baseball and football fields, and two or three well-equipped picnic areas.

Add to all of that a principal and a staff who are sold on, believe in, understand, and are, therefore, sympathetic toward the early adolescent's problems and needs—a staff that is imbued with the idea of making the junior high school pupil-centered as well as subject-centered—and you will have a school with its interest directed toward great human relationships and values.

That is a good junior high school!

Group III—Room 404

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INTERROGATORS AND CONSULTANTS:

Charles E. Hood, Superintendent-Principal, Custer County High School and Junior College, Miles City, Montana.

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What Are the Current Trends in the Junior College Program?

HUGH S. BONAR

SOME of the current trends in the junior college area of our total school effort have to do with surveys, enrollments and new schools, purposes and

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offerings, financing, admission policies, counseling and appraising, faculty, and standards and accrediting.

SURVEYS

Many states are conducting surveys to determine how to meet the need for adult educational programs. The need has been accentuated by the wartime demands for intensified training for war-industry jobs and by the government sponsored veterans' education program. Price summarizes some of these surveys in his article published in the *Junior College Journal*, September, 1949.¹ The surveys are often initiated by state legislatures. The findings will influence legislation as a result of the surveys. Others will modify existing legislation. The people are concerned with organization planning, finance, and course offerings.

Several recent surveys have been made on a nation-wide basis. These include the President's Commission on Higher Education and that made by the National Council of Chief State Officers. When state laws permit organizing junior colleges, the survey technique is used to great advantage to get the community information and assistance in organizing the additional educational services. Peterson and Thornton describe in detail how the survey was used in establishing the new junior college at Costa Mesa, California.²

Koos emphasizes this current development when he says: "By far the most important recommendation to be made is that proposals for community-college development in a state should be preceded by a state-wide inquiry."³ To determine extent of need, the status of existing institutions of higher learning, the location of new community colleges, the relationship to other institutions of learning, the methods of support, the extent and place of control, and the nature of offerings—surveys are currently being employed to bring a degree of orderly procedure in future developments.

ENROLLMENTS AND NEW JUNIOR COLLEGES

Enrollments in posthigh-school educational programs will depend upon a number of factors, primary among which will be the number of young people in our population between ages 18 and 21, as well as the numbers in successively older age brackets. The low birth rates of the 1930's will give us decreasing numbers of the college age group until early 1950's.

The increasing number of the college age group entering higher institutions of learning between 1900 and 1940 is another factor in the enrollment trend that will undoubtedly continue, influenced by standards of living, technology changes, and societal evolution. It is reported that the number of young people, ages 18 to 21, in higher institutions of learning increased from 4.0 per

¹ Price, Hugh G., "Planning for Public Junior College Development Through State and National Surveys," *Junior College Journal*, Vol. XX, No. 1, p. 16.

² Peterson, Basil H., and Thornton, James W., Jr., "Building a Functional Program for a Junior College," *Junior College Journal*, November, 1948.

³ Koos, Leonard V., "Essentials in State-wide Communities, College Planning," *The School Review*, September, 1949, p. 341.

cent in 1900 to 15.9 per cent in 1940.⁴ Based on experiences such as those in California and Texas and estimates of competent students of the problem, Tead says, "We have a right to anticipate and to plan that, within the next twenty years, at least one half of the high-school graduates will be enabled to extend their education for two more years. This should mean an eventual junior-college enrollment on the order of well over three million students. "This prophecy no doubt sounds somewhat terrifying . . . I refer not so much to any enlarging of present junior colleges as to the multiplication of their number."⁵

PURPOSES AND OFFERINGS

Two major trends are present in purposes and supporting course offerings. One is to provide the first two years of college work to be transferred and accredited in a regular four-year college. The second is to offer short term courses of one year and two years, and many adult short courses of six to ten weeks for sub-professional supporting personnel in industry, business, and professions.

Koos summarizes this aspect when he says, "Recent years have seen a movement, now on the verge of being rapidly accelerated, to set up (a) a core of general education as nearly alike for all full-time students as may be and (b) two-way opportunity for specialization in terms of the students' interests and abilities, including (1) preparation for further work in university or college for the group planning to continue their education and (2) preparation for vocations at the sub-professional level for most of those who will not continue. The curriculum should also provide part-time offerings in wide variety for youth and adults."⁶

The Orange Coast College, California, determined purposes from the intensive local survey which was the foundation for the program of offerings. The study led to the adoption of six objectives: occupational competence, civic competence, personal efficiency, university transfer, removal of matriculation deficiencies, and life-long training.⁷ Greater attention to the community needs have changed emphasis to the needs of the great sub-professional area. In large sections of the nation, vocational training is being encouraged in the thirteenth and fourteenth years. This is particularly true in the South and Southwest.

The adult aspects of the community college program are without limit—both in (1) the direction of culture—art, music, great books, *etc.*—and (2) the direction of practical work needs such as television maintenance, auto repair, grass farming, labor-management enlightenment, and distributive educa-

⁴ United States Federal Security Agency, Office of Education, "Statistics of Higher Education 1939-40 and 1941-42." *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States* (Washington, D. C.: United States Government Printing Office, 1944). P. 4.

⁵ Tead, Ordway, "Education for Social Well-Being," *Junior College Journal*, September, 1948, pp. 14-15.

⁶ *Op cit.*, Koos, p. 348.

⁷ *Op cit.*, Peterson and Thornton, pp. 119-120.

tion. The part-time aspects of the community college program of services is one which is increasing and may be expected to expand.

FINANCING

The financing of this extension of schooling is often a problem challenging the boards of education who are responding to the community demands for these expanding services. For many years the junior college may be expected to serve a larger geographical area than the high school with which it is usually integrated.

State aids are recommended and have been provided in a number of states. Studies show wide variance in ability of districts to support community colleges. Authorities recommend a combination of flat grants, equalized aid, and local taxation. The question of tuition-free public junior colleges is one which is receiving attention by communities and states that desire to apply the principle of greatest possible extension of educational opportunity to those who can profit most. This will involve scholarships, tuition, and possibly subsistence aid from the district in which the college student resides, in the instance where he must travel to the nearest junior college for this posthigh-school education.

Koos found 1.7 times the proportion of qualified high-school graduates attending community colleges in tuition-free districts as contrasted with tuition-charging districts. He found the proportion of graduates in lower socio-economic groups continuing in tuition-free situations almost 2.4 times that in tuition-charging situations. "In the light of such evidence, the reports to the legislative commissions in Illinois, Maryland, and Pennsylvania could hardly do less than include recommendation of a free-tuition policy," he writes.⁸

ADMISSION POLICIES

As the junior college increasingly recognizes community adult education needs, the traditional high-school graduation requirement with specific majors and minors will give way to individual counseling and recognition of need as the bases for admission to further study. Of course, the college transfer student will be controlled by the traditional entrance requirements until such time as the colleges and universities agree to surrender their time-worn presumptive prerogative of telling the high schools what to teach.

This is coming and is desired by some universities that have discovered more valid criteria of determining probable student success in college. The pronounced swing from college-transfer courses to community-needs courses will force change in admission policies. Some colleges are now accepting "terminal" courses in some fields for transfer credit. General Educational Development Tests results have convinced many college admissions officers of the value of other than high-school graduation and course units in determining college cali-

⁸ *Op cit.*, Koos, p. 349.

ber people. J. Everett Long, registrar, West Virginia University, puts it this way: "The nature of postsecondary education will be so varied that the concept of admission to college should be restated:

- "1. It is imperative that identification of potential talent be made early and receive continuous attention throughout the individual's life.
- "2. The process of selection for postsecondary education should be a co-operative process, involving the individual, his parents, his school, and the higher institution.
- "3. The policies controlling admission should be adapted to the educational opportunities offered in the higher institution. It must be recognized that the requirements should vary in certain respects in different types of institutions, but each institution should require an accepted minimum of general education for admission. The techniques employed in admission should be extended to include a variety of appropriate measures of achievement and abilities. Estimates of growth in personal and social characteristics should be included as a part of the total inventory of qualifications of admission."

He adds, "The community or junior college offering general education, terminal technical courses, and adult education is becoming an increasingly important factor in American education. Products of these colleges, like graduates of high schools with vocational or similar diversified courses, have some difficulty meeting senior college and university admission requirements. If the products of the junior colleges, like the products of high schools, demonstrate in practice that the quality of scholarship rather than pattern of subject matter is the major factor in good preparation for the senior college, the history of the community college transfer and of the high-school graduate may be expected to follow identical trends in college and university admissions."¹⁰

COUNSELING, TESTING, AND APPRAISING ACHIEVEMENT AND DEVELOPMENT

Much attention is being given to careful counseling before students are enrolled in many junior colleges. Wood stresses this service when he says: "It seems essential that we should begin with the strongest possible program of personal guidance prior to enrollment in the community college. It is possible to study carefully the accumulated academic and personnel records of each student who has come up through the elementary school and the high school. It is possible to discover, through testing and personal interview, the individual applicant's real interests, his abilities, and his shortcomings. It is possible to utilize all such information to help the applicant decide for himself the best possible outlets for his energies. Only after this preliminary work has been done should any applicant be enrolled in any course at the college level. But the mat-

⁹ Long, J. Everett, "Admission Policies and Procedures," *Current Trends in Higher Education*, NEA, 1949, pp. 12-13.

¹⁰ *Ibid.* p. 16.

ter should not rest there. During the first year in the community college, every student should have the benefit of a guidance course that will acquaint him with the philosophy of the school, with improved techniques in how to locate and how to interpret information, how to use time wisely, how to meet and to get along with other people.

"The tests and the interviews should continue throughout the year. They should not be used to deny a person admittance to the community college nor to help get him out, if he does not do well academically after he has been admitted. The tests and the interviews rather open the door on the dark chamber of self knowledge. To know thyself, at least in some small measure, is the first step in the development of an enlightened citizen."¹¹

Testing for capacity, aptitude, and interest has become an aid to effective counseling before and after enrolling in junior college. It eliminates much guessing and gives factual evidence the student and counselor can use in planning future course work.

Much attention is given to appraising student growth and achievement in postsecondary schooling. While the traditional examination is used very extensively, many changes have been introduced in some colleges. New type evaluative instruments and processes are increasingly being tried. Follow-up studies of graduates, reports from employers, self-evaluative schemes, rating by fellow students, as well as the faculty reports and records are ways in which measures of the junior college product are being obtained.

Most difficult are the attempts to measure the attitudes, appreciations, and beliefs which are among the goals in student development the colleges have set. These goals may not only be most important in the lives of our people as individuals seeking well-adjusted personalities, but also may be critical among the total means of preserving the great ethical concepts needed to guide mankind to peace and general welfare.

Van Til calls our attention to this attitudes area when he discusses the problem of intercultural attitudes. He says, "By now, psychologists have amassed sufficient evidence that bigoted, hostile, and suspicious personalities stem, in large part, from deprivation, maladjustment, insecurity, and lack of belongingness. As Sister Mary deLaurdes put it, 'Every bigot was once a child.' Sometimes the very family which is most concerned for desirable human relations may in its child rearing follow the approaches most conducive to the creation of hostility and suspicion towards others."¹²

"As a people and as schoolmen, we put our trust only secondly in what Kipling has referred to as 'reeking tube and iron shard.' We put our trust first, or we say we do, in a body of Christian-Judaic ideals (which are, as I have said,

¹¹ Wood, William Ransom, "What Are the Current Trends in Junior College Education?" *THE BULLETIN of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, May, 1949, p. 113.

¹² Van Til, William, "Building Intercultural Attitudes Through the School," *The North Central Association Quarterly*, January, 1949, p. 243.

older than either Christianity or Judaism). These are brought to realization through the application of the best of our rational processes. We rest our civilization on good moral ends and precise scientific means."¹³

Evaluations of these phases of our junior college program are made through questionnaires, personal interviews, and observations of actual behaviors as these are demonstrated in classrooms, on athletic teams, in school elections, at school social events, and as these behaviors are observed in the larger community contacts.

TEACHERS

Shortage of competent teachers has handicapped this rapidly expanding phase of our total educational effort. The supply has been short in numbers but shorter in type to fit the different demands created by the community college. A new type teacher is needed. The highly trained subject-matter specialist doesn't fit the many facet problems characteristic of the junior college or community college program of services. The new type must know subject matter, true, but in addition must be more versatile in relation to the changing needs. These include knowledge of community needs, guidance techniques, evaluative devices—tangible and intangible,—and the problem solving approach to teaching.

Recognizing this teacher need, Tead said, "Conspicuously lacking at the junior-college level are positive measures to grapple with the special teaching problems of this transitional two-year period. We tend either to utilize stereotyped extensions of high-school teaching methods or to take over, without modification, the rigidities and bleakness of college teaching efforts as now used in the first two college years. Fortunately there is now increasing acknowledgment that what goes on in our classrooms, laboratories, and field-work experiences stands in dire need of complete re-examination and overhauling. The problem of effective teaching and learning at this level, with its rapidly increasing numbers of students whose intellectual qualifications are somewhat different from those in the senior colleges, is a new problem to be faced experimentally without preconception and with imaginative originality in the light of modern knowledge of the nature of the learning process.

"Hence I propose the immediate creation of a Commission on Teaching Methods of the American Association of Junior Colleges, which will collate and publicize in every possible way the best now known and, with foundation support if necessary, encourage further research and controlled experiment in improved teaching methods, with special reference to the students whose capacity for abstract thinking is not high and who are better *doers* than they are *verbalizers*."¹⁴

¹³ *Ibid.*, p. 248.

¹⁴ Tead, Ordway, "Education for Social Well-being." *Junior College Journal*, September, 1948, pp. 18-19.

STANDARDS, ACCREDITING, AND CONTROL

When the junior college was almost wholly a two-year pre-professional transfer-credit type of college, the state university was the accrediting agency. The course offerings were copied from those required at the university during the freshman and sophomore years. The university approved new courses, fixed standards of laboratories, libraries, and teacher qualifications. Then as junior colleges grew in number, regional accrediting organizations inspected and approved the two-year colleges largely on the basis of comparison with the first two years of a four-year college.

With the accrediting went control. So-called terminal courses were not acceptable in a traditional type college. Students might want to transfer to a senior college some day. So administrators of junior colleges were reluctant to open their schools to other than college-bound students.

Swept by the tide of need, junior college administrators are now resisting senior college control of junior college programs. Vocational courses, in the commonly accepted meaning of the term, are increasing in number in junior colleges. General adult short courses for nonhigh-school graduates are being offered in greater numbers every year. The community service concept is changing bases for accrediting and control. The control is being placed with boards of education under the general supervision of state departments of public instruction. Standards will be set by these state departments. Location of new colleges, size of territory included, financing, and teacher qualifications will be increasingly determined by state departments of education.

SUMMARY

Among the many aspects of junior college developments, significant trends are noted in the extent of national, state, and local surveys; in the increased enrollments and the kind of enrollees together with the opening of new junior colleges; in the changed purposes and course offerings; in the financing of posthigh-school education involving state aid and tuition-free factors; in admission policies as these are feeling the impact of the community-need idea as contrasted with the college-transfer-credit idea; in testing, counseling, and appraising of product; in the changed type of faculty member; and in the accrediting, standards, and control aspects of the total junior college program as these move from the state universities and regional accrediting organizations to local boards of education and state departments of public instruction.

What Are Current Trends in Junior College Programs?

WAYNE F. McINTIRE

DEVELOPMENTS in the junior college program are almost without end. City college, community college, Jones College, and many other titles are all junior college. Probably the greatest development in the junior college movement has been in the establishment of junior colleges and the increase in junior college enrollment. For more than a half century there has been much interest in the junior college movement as was evidenced in writing and speaking. And, along with the interest expressed by the written and the spoken word, there was action that resulted in the establishment of more than 650 junior colleges throughout the nation.¹ Enrollments grew and during the school year of 1948-49, more than 500,000 students enrolled in these institutions,² and, according to October 1 reports of 1949, there was an increase over 1948³ in the number of full-time students enrolled. Such growth is certainly significant when university and college enrollments are generally declining.

Other new developments of interest to those who are taking part in the junior college programs may be found in the areas of organization and administration, faculty preparation, student personnel, and school program developments. Larger junior college administrative units are being established with assessed valuations large enough to support extensive programs.

During the past year, two of California's large counties held elections asking the voters to establish junior college districts with boundaries co-terminus with the counties. One of the districts was created, and the failure of the other resulted not because of the proposition but because the professional personnel failed to agree. The new junior college district created will have a full-time student enrollment of about 2,400 and will have approximately one and a half million dollars as a beginning amount available yearly for operating costs.

Faculty preparation and development is being carried on through studies and planned programs. During the summer of 1949 at different centers across the nation, workshop, institutes, and seminars enrolled staff members and students interested in joining junior college staffs.⁴ An indication of the spirit of this development may be gained from a statement made by the director of one of the programs: "... Teachers must understand the philosophy, objectives, and developing programs of these community colleges before they can participate and contribute fully as faculty members . . ." New guides

¹ Bogue, Jesse P., "From the Executive Secretary's Desk," *Jr. College Journal*, Vol. XX, No. 1, p. 47.

² *Ibid.*

³ Bogue, Jesse P., "Junior College World," *Junior College Journal*, Vol. XX, No. 4, p. 224.

⁴ Bogue, Jesse P., "Junior College World," *Junior College Journal*, Vol. XX, No. 1, p. 43 ff.

⁵ Gordon, Ted, "Realistic Training for Junior College Service," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, Vol. 24, No. 8, p. 482.

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are being developed based upon the stated problems of staff members, and study programs continuing through the year are being established for staff members to follow. This may be just the beginning of this development, however, if the estimated need of 30,000 new staff members is to be met.*

A NEW EMPHASIS UPON GUIDANCE

In student personnel programs of junior college there is, at present, a new emphasis upon guidance. Why is a student pursuing the program he is? Has he changed his program with or without being counseled? When does a student withdraw from school? Is a student employed in the occupation for which he was prepared? Is a student active in the community after leaving school? These questions and many others are being asked in the study of students in the guidance program of many junior colleges. It should also be noted that such programs are not based upon an elaborate logically organized program of testing and recording. The emphasis is on contacting students and keeping records of the plans and programs of students.

Many junior colleges as well as colleges and universities are still carrying on student personnel practices as they have in the past. Testing week is scheduled one week prior to registration supposedly for guidance and counseling. But little if any use is ever made of test results as is illustrated by the following example. A freshman entering one of the large universities reported for testing week in September. On the Monday following testing week he was to register. The crowd was large and each student made out his own program. After he had filled out the different forms, he waited in line to see an adviser. When he met his adviser, his program was checked to make sure he was taking all beginning courses. Then the adviser looked at him and said, "Do you think this is a good program for you?" No reference was made to test results nor to the boy's plans. Probably the tests will be scored later in the year and the results recorded for filing.

In our junior colleges some of the most effective personal, educational, and vocational counseling is being carried on by the teaching staff. In discussing counseling with a college director recently, he said that their entire counseling program was centered in the teaching staff. To be sure there were the specialists to whom special cases were referred for help, but the instructor working with the students assumed responsibility for regular conferences, casual meetings, and conferences upon the requests of students. The effectiveness of the program is attested to by graduates, families of students, and students.

Counselors and personnel specialists have their place in the present student personnel program. It is their function to administer and offer leadership to the whole program. Cases requiring services of specialized nature will be referred to them. They will administer or direct the administering of test batteries and then make plans for their proper interpretation to the students as

* *Wanted: 30,000 Instructors for Community Colleges.* Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1949.

individuals and groups. They meet students coming to the college to inquire about entering because students are encouraged to come individually, and a year-around service is maintained to discuss entrance problems and to counsel them into programs in which they are most likely to find success.

Changes are being made in course offering and curricula. New courses and new curricula are being developed and many of the present courses and curricula are being studied to determine whether or not they should be continued as a part of the school program. Advisory and community committees are working with professional staffs as they plan junior college programs for occupations and entire communities. General education programs are being studied and planned. In fact, it may be said that there are developments on every hand.

New courses are being planned to develop programs of experience and information. It has not been uncommon for a school to offer a group of almost unrelated courses to be taken. This condition existed regardless of organizational patterns. Present planning indicates that attempts are being made to plan programs of information and experiences for students. A common practice is to introduce the student to his program with a survey course. Visits to a number of colleges during the past year have demonstrated the significance of such planning.

It is of importance in course and curricula planning that junior colleges have come to be less dependent upon universities. This has come about in part because of lack of uniformity in requirements among universities and colleges and the changing of requirements of the different departments. Probably of greatest importance in bringing this change about is the outstanding records made by junior college transfer students who have attended universities and colleges. Certainly the change from dependence to independence upon university course and curriculum patterns by our junior colleges is welcome.

OTHER CONTRIBUTING PROCEDURES

Advisory and community committees have been written about and discussed, but, until recently, little use has been made of them in practice. Nationally and locally, educational leaders have urged the organizing of representative committees to serve as advisers to educational institutions and agencies. During World War II, over fifteen hundred advisory committees were active in the war-production training program. They have left their marks upon junior college practice as well as upon the entire program of public education. Advisory and community committees have certainly brought the junior college and its community more closely together.

Advisory committees are found most commonly in the area of vocational education. These committees vary in their membership and purpose. Examples are: apprenticeship advisory committees, education advisory committees, and industrial advisory committees. These committees are organized for

homemaking, distributive education, agriculture, and trade and industrial groups. They are usually representative in nature and are to serve only in an advisory capacity. The school representative, if there is one, usually serves as secretary or chairman of the group.

The use of community committees has developed in connection with the establishment of new institutions. Members of the committee have been selected to represent all phases of community life. Its function has been to advise the professional staff in developing a college program for the community. Community committees may develop and serve colleges to advantage in yet unexplored ways.

A movement that has attracted much attention is commonly called general education. Professional members active in the development of general education programs are seeking for a body of knowledge and/or areas of experience that everyone should have regardless of his chosen occupation. To arrive at a program of general education much effort has been given to the development of new courses and programs, and at present probably even greater effort is being expended to change present courses and programs. Currently the movement is being given added support because of the advanced age at which young people are being accepted into employment. Programs of general education, therefore, may be developed with greater speed than if left on their own to develop.

The adult education enrollment in junior colleges is growing. This can be expected to continue because junior colleges are able to offer programs to adults that have not been available to them before, and adults are finding more time to pursue them.

Industry, business, and government are also finding junior colleges helpful to them in their training programs. As a result, many more adults are enrolling in vocational courses. As cultural centers, junior colleges are inducing large numbers of adults and youth to enroll and enjoy many cultural benefits for the first time.

In summary, new developments of interest in junior colleges are to be found in the areas of student personnel, course and program offerings, faculty development, building programs, organization, finance, and administration. Junior colleges are increasing in number, and their average enrollments have increased.

Group IV—East Promenade

CHAIRMAN: *Gerald M. Van Pool*, Director of Student Activities, National Association of Secondary-School Principals, Washington, D. C.

INTERROGATORS AND CONSULTANTS:

S. M. Hastings, Principal, O'Keefe High School, Atlanta, Georgia.

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How Can the Student Council Function More Effectively in the Secondary School?

FREDERIC T. SHIPP

A REVIEW of our national convention programs of preceding years impresses one by the regularity with which the important topic of the Student Council appears. This is a hardy convention perennial. Its frequency of appearance is due in part at least to the able leadership in our national office, to the concern over the slow progress of student council development in many schools, and to the increasing interest of more administrators in an effective student council as an integral part of modern secondary-school life.

Frankly, in these well-recorded convention reports, in the very complete Student Council Handbooks,¹ and in the wealth of recent periodical articles, all has been said that is essential to a more effective student council. The purpose of this paper, therefore, should not be merely to repeat that which has already been said. Any further contribution will be in the matter of emphasis—first things first.

In considering this issue, "How Can the Student Council Function More Effectively in the Secondary School?", one is faced with three possible approaches: (1) survey the literature and summarize it, (2) draw on his own personal observations and experiences; and (3) secure the best thinking of his fellow-administrators. Although a combination of all three might be desirable, limitations of time and space will hardly permit such an ambitious treatment.

Rather than follow either of the first two approaches, I have endeavored to secure the best thinking of my fellow-administrators in the West. In answer to a very recent inquiry on the subject of this paper, 127 principals have sent in brief but important suggestions for more effective functioning of the student council. The balance of this paper is based largely upon a summary of their combined thinking. The data is presented not in statistical form but in

¹ *The Student Council in the Secondary School*, NASSP, Revised Edition, 1950 and *The 1949 Student Councils Handbook*.

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terms of trends. The significance of their replies lies in the amount of agreement on the essentials for greater effectiveness. It is not surprising that the writer's viewpoint coincides generally with the points which these 127 men think are important.

IMPROVED ATTITUDE OF THE PRINCIPAL

My fellow-administrators are convinced that three factors make for increased effectiveness of the student council in the secondary school.

First and foremost is the improved attitude of the principal toward the student council. This obvious fact continues to be neglected by many writers, who calmly assume that the interest and sympathy already are present. Lip-service to the theory of student participation in government is given by most administrators, but the actual practice in many schools contradicts this. The principal's attitude, therefore, is the first essential, as stressed by such pioneers as Richard Welling in their emphasis upon student participation in the management of the school.

Cubberley of Stanford long ago coined the phrase, "As is the principal, so is the school." We would paraphrase this, "As is the principal, so is the student council." The form and substance of student participation stems from the attitude of the administration.

We are agreed that the chief purpose of the American public school is to produce effective citizens. It is the primary obligation of the principal, therefore, to see that adequate experiences are provided all students to become effective citizens through membership, participation, and leadership in the civic life of the school. There is no better instrument to facilitate these important experiences than an effective student council. The principal who fails to meet the challenge of student self-direction and growth in civic responsibility through the support of such an organization has missed his greatest opportunity and satisfaction. Likewise he has failed in one of his greatest responsibilities.

IMPROVED ATTITUDE OF THE FACULTY

Second, my fellow principals and I are agreed that the attitude of the faculty is of equal importance. This factor frequently has been overlooked or neglected. To the extent to which the faculty believes in this primary purpose of the school and gives encouragement, support, and confidence to student participation, so will the student council become increasingly effective. This applies especially to those who serve as class or home-room advisers, and most particularly to the sponsor assigned to the student council.² In this relationship the attitude, interest, training, and experience of this person equals in importance those of the principal. It is the most significant administrative assignment made, and the person so charged should be the most qualified person

² *Op. cit.*, The Student Council in the Secondary School, Chapter V.

on the staff. It can well be a dean or vice-principal, but the quality of the person rather than the position held should be the determining factor in the selection of the sponsor. It should not be the principal, save only as a last resort, for he should be free to serve in an appellant role.

This sponsor must be given sufficient time to counsel wisely, but, in a nondirective role, the student leaders of the school. The time and effort an able sponsor puts into this task pays greater dividends than any other one responsibility in terms of pupil morale, parent support and public confidence.

THE CHARACTER OF THE STUDENT COUNCIL

Third, the character of the student council itself is a prime factor. Our administrators agree that this is an all-important organization, an essential to a modern secondary school. It requires the confidence of the principal, the support of the faculty, and the respect of the student body to be effective. The trends which will achieve and maintain greater Student Council effectiveness can be found not only in the literature already at hand but also in a composite summary of the up-to-date thinking of these 127 western administrators. Five of these trends are as follows:

1. *Membership of the Student Council.* This trend demands that every effort be made to see that the student council is truly representative of *all* the students in the school, freshmen as well as seniors, boys as well as girls. The tendency in some schools is deplored which centers major responsibilities in the hands of a few of the "big wheels" or campus politicians instead of providing proper representation from all levels. There is strong sentiment for a student council representative from every group or class, with no little minority acting in the dominant role. Majority representation means majority rule—a primary factor in our American political life.

These representatives, therefore, will be freely selected and democratically elected with little or no limitations, such as grade level or scholarship. The quality of their leadership is to be determined by their peers through discussion and decision, as they learn from experience the way capable or incapable students represent them in the civic activities of the school. Furthermore, the representative student council is expanding its numbers in proportion to the size of the school and to the enlarged activity program. It is large enough to speak for the many elements in the high-school student body of today, yet not too large to be unwieldy.

2. *The Organization of the Student Council.* Another definite trend, in which these western administrators believe, is toward streamlining the student council organization for simplicity of structure and efficiency of function. Disappearing is such a complicated organizational structure as that patterned after our national government. The problems of time and effort in making such involved systems work are too many for the average school to handle effectively. Instead, there are representatives elected directly from the class—

core, subject, or advisory—or the club, meeting as a single body, and presided over by a few executive officers elected at large. These meetings are being held regularly on school time, at a specified period and in a suitable place, conducive to the satisfactory transaction of the important business of the student council. The student council gains status in that it takes precedence over all other meetings.

The meetings of the student council are thoroughly prepared and properly run, with considerable (usually daily) pre-planning by the executive leaders in consultation with their sponsors. In lieu of the latter, it is frequently recommended that the student council meet daily as a "leadership class," with the sponsor as teacher, and for which credit is given. The "course of study" usually includes the problems of student participation in the government of the school, the co-curricular program and leadership development.

The members of the student council find their greatest effectiveness in being able to report back within a short time to their respective groups for consideration of the issues and problems brought before their body. The trend is for the group of "constituents" to be a class. In the past, frequently it was the home room, meeting weekly, with a somewhat artificial setting and a lack of common interests. Today it is a subject class, usually and most naturally the social studies, which now is required of all grade levels in many western schools. This class, with its logical interest in civic matters, meets daily for an hour and permits ample time for early consideration of the problem confronting the students in their student-council program. The class is usually student-organized and presided over by class officers. Such an organization is functional, permitting *all* the students to share in and understand the matters pertinent to a happy and successful participation in high-school government. The entire student body, under the direction of the student council, becomes an active, co-operative, thinking group dealing with real problems of interest and concern to them.

3. *The Responsibilities of the Student Council.* These need to be more clearly defined. It is here that most of the conflicts in student-council administration relationship arise. The western principals feel that, if the administrator believes the student council can assume only a limited amount of responsibility, this should be set forth with the equally clear definition of the administration's role. More of my colleagues believe the administrator's position is stronger and more satisfying when even greater responsibilities are given to the student council. Some of my friends go to the extreme of placing maximum responsibilities for the major activities of student life in the hands of a well-established student council, with all co-curricular and even some curricular matters in their hands. Frequently such a student council serves as an advisory or consultant body to the principal on problems primarily his, but where student counsel is helpful.

In other words, the student council becomes more effective as it is given more effective things to do. No group of intelligent American high-school young people will long participate seriously in some limited, role-playing organization that poses as a representative government of the student body, yet is subject to a continual veto by a mistrusting administrator. The veto power is always there; it should be used seldom if ever. They will not accept for any length of time the "phoney" type of organization, to which is given the name but not the game of the student council.

The effective student council, coming out of a school environment which professes to teach independence of thinking and to encourage self-direction, will demand real problems and live issues for its consideration. In such an active group, they learn the important democratic skills essential to an intelligent adult citizenry, the *pros* and *cons* of a discussion and the compromise, the investigative character of committee work before action is taken, the respect for the other person's opinion as well as his own, the hot battles of differences finally resolved, and a uniting at last behind the decision of the majority. It is a calculated risk, my friends report, but well worth it.

4. *The Development of Leadership Beneath and Beyond the Student Council.* The administrators feel strongly that the desired effectiveness of the student council lies in the purpose of an organization which seeks to encourage participation at all levels and in all groups. Good leaders do not appear overnight. Instead, they evolve out of a myriad of activities, organizations, committees, clubs, and classes, from freshman year to senior year. Each provides its share of leadership experience, leading on to the highest type of student service. The student council functions best when it encourages these many activities, providing the opportunities for everyone so inclined to participate and eventually to lead.

These groups, which the student council supervises and represents, are the key units in the development of good followership and leadership. The various group officers and committeemen provide a maximum number of worth-while respectable positions which lead gradually to the more important offices in the student council. The experience of each and every participant in making his contribution is of inestimable value to the student council and to the entire school. Each gets out of the experience more than he puts in, and with it goes the satisfaction of a job done and loyalty gained. In this role the student council increasingly takes more responsibility for leadership development through a program of shared activities for all, committee work and officerships for many, and leadership positions for more students than ever before.

5. *The Interschool Activities of the Student Council.* The opportunities for frequent inter-school contacts beyond the traditional athletic contests are being encouraged by the administrators. Increasingly, our schools within a

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certain natural section or athletic league hold conferences for three purposes: (1) good fellowship, (2) consideration of problems of mutual concern, and (3) sharing of ideas and experiences which have proven successful in their respective schools. These interschool affairs are held once to eight times during the school year, and usually under the direction of the student councils. The schools are well represented by their most capable students who have determined in advance the problems to be discussed.

The western administrators recognize that the schools whose students participate in such an exchange have fewer conflicts and misunderstandings. They realize also that as principals they must be prepared to meet with their student councils to consider new suggestions for improvement which have come out of these conferences and which are not a part of their particular schools. The mutual confidence between these students and their principals is tested at such a time. Few hesitate to accept this challenge for it is recognized as another way in which the student council can function more effectively.

This conference is looked upon as the major point of emphasis for any general organization of student councils. It is the sound base for both state and national organizations. In these regional or sectional conferences there is maximum participation by sufficient numbers of students from each school. Within such numbers is found sufficient leadership combined with intelligent ideas to make an impact upon the local schools. Beyond this, in the state and national organizations, only the select few should meet, and that to the end of improving the program of services to the groups at the "grass-roots" level.

In summarizing this summary, based largely on the suggestions of 127 western administrators, the need for mutual confidence and support of the student council by principal, faculty, and students is quite apparent. Within the student council itself these present-day trends will make for greater effectiveness: adequate representation of *all* the students, streamlining of the organization, definition and expansion of responsibilities, development of extensive leadership, and improvement of relationships through interschool conferences.

How Can the Student Council Function More Effectively in the Secondary School?

ROLAND C. FAUNCE

THE Student Council entered upon the modern high-school scene with phenomenal rapidity. Those interested in the student participation movement have noted that its origins go far back into the history of education. We know about the academies of Plato and Aristotle, the Pleasant House of da Faltre in

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the 14th century, the work of Trotzindorff in the 16th and Pestalozzi in the 18th century. In our own country, the first real public high school founded in Boston in 1821 had a student council, based upon a few pioneer experiments in colonial schools. Yet these and some other experimental programs which might be cited were but tiny rays of light, chiefly notable because of the general darkness. Despite a number of successful experiments in the late 19th century and the first two decades of the 20th century, less than half of our high schools had organized student councils in 1925.¹ Yet in 1940, two separate national surveys of student participation revealed that eighty-one per cent to ninety-two per cent of American high schools had some organized form of student participation.²

It is clear that the student council movement captured American high schools with a suddenness that is unusual in the history of educational change. Many reasons have been cited for this phenomenal extension of the student council idea. Among these are the vigorous leadership of the National Self-Government Committee, whose moving spirit was the grand old man of school democracy, Richard Welling; the organization of the state and national association of student councils; the growth of the extracurricular activities movement; the influence of the growing junior high school; and the cumulative effect of hundreds of speeches, articles, and books on the subject by educational leaders. In any case, the student council movement assumed during the years 1920-1940 the aspects of a fashionable gesture toward education for democracy, and any high-school principal who wished to be in the swim had to develop one in his school.

THE EARLY STUDENT COUNCIL

Whatever the cause, or causes of its sudden extension, it appears certain that the student council did not appear in the typical American high school as the fruition of a general democratization of the high school. On the contrary, the student council was introduced into our secondary schools during a period when these institutions were still generally autocratic in their administrative organization, paternalistic in their pupil-teacher relationships, and authoritarian in their patterns of classroom instruction. The extracurricular domain was, in theory, organized as a means of giving students some voice in school affairs, and it was precisely here that the student council became classified and organizationally based. The early councils were even elected either as representatives of the school interest clubs and social organizations or of the grade level "classes" whose functions were also extracurricular in nature. Later, with the rise of the home room, the student council commonly consisted of home-room representatives. In spite of early hopes to the contrary, the home room has persisted

¹ McKown, H. C., *The Student Council* (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1944), p. 14.

² Kelley, Earl C., *Student Co-operation—A Report of Student Government in the High Schools*. (New York: The National Self-Government Committee, 1941).

Brogue, E. B., and Jacobson, P. B. *Student Council Handbook*. National Association of Secondary-School Principals, March, 1940.

as an extracurricular program with very small impact on classroom instruction. Instead of becoming a unifying plan which would enrich and integrate the student's work in his various classes, the home room has largely remained an administrative and counseling device. Thus the student council tended to become a sort of glorified club with little direct connection or influence upon the classroom.

Classroom instruction has not, indeed, been a fertile ground for action-democracy until recently. Teachers have too often been the goal-determiners, assignment-givers, sole evaluators, and controllers of group discipline in the classroom. There has been all too little opportunity, in most high-school classes, for boys and girls to learn the difficult techniques of decision-making, evaluation, and group planning upon which successful democratic action rests. Indeed, the persistent practice of having the adults set the purposes for the "learners" has resulted in an ironic shift of the students' real interests to the extracurricular domain. The high-school student commonly accepts and achieves the teacher's goals for the class in a purely superficial way, and reserves his real enthusiasm for the things that matter to him—which may be football, dates, hobbies, or a job outside of school. Over half of our young people of high-school age still reject the high school before graduation in favor of jobs, marriage, or just fun.

These facts have been pointed out many times before. The purpose of citing them here is to help to clarify the reasons why the student council movement made so little impact on the total school program, in spite of its ready acceptance by administrators. The really important aspects of the high school—the part for which credit was given and a generous time allotment made—were not only beyond the scope of the council but were also conducted so as to defeat the purposes of democratic learning. Thus the student council entered the high schools during a period when the high-school classrooms were not in gear with the goals which the student council sought to achieve; namely, the learning of the hard tasks of democratic citizenship through actual civic participation.

How about the total school, aside from the classrooms? Here, too, the idea of democratic participation had not made any important impact. The line and staff administrative scheme centralized responsibility and discouraged group policy-making. Even teachers were not generally encouraged to share in making important decisions, to say nothing of students. The basic pattern of human relationships was a paternalistic one—from superintendent to principal, from principal to department head, from department head to teachers. At the bottom of this hierarchy dutifully sat the student, going through the motions of learning and treated in paternalistic fashion by all the adults in the school. Any attempt on his

part to organize the students for the purpose of assuming real responsibilities would probably have resulted in his expulsion.

FACTORS MILITATING AGAINST SUCCESS

Into such a basically undemocratic institution, then, the student council was introduced during the 1920's and 30's as a carefully controlled, extra-curricular gesture toward democracy. What were the results of this widespread experiment?

In the first place, wide misunderstanding about the purposes and legitimate scope of the student council has resulted from its general introduction into an unsympathetic *milieu*. High-school principals, council advisers, professors of education, and others have debated vigorously for thirty years about the proper function of the student council. Our professional literature is full of articles about the student council, arguing as to its organizational framework, its scope, its purposes, and its proper field of activities. How can it be fitted into our typically line-and-staff administrative pattern, we ask? Should there be a veto power, and who should exercise it? Should we exclude some students from it, and if so, on what basis? How far dare we allow student councils to go? What should be the relationship of teachers to the council? Should school time be permitted for school-wide discussion of council matters? All of these questions, and scores of others like them, have plagued the profession throughout the period of the student council's rapid extension, and they are still before us. There is, even today, a vast misunderstanding of the purpose of student participation in school government. This confusion arises, in part, from the fact that our school organization is not traditionally a democratic one, and, thus, it offers no clear basis for democratic student planning and action.

As a plan for civic training through civic participation, the student council has not been notably successful. Through minimum grade plans, we have often limited participation in the council to those fortunate students who can be trusted, as evidenced by their marks in our classes. In some schools, the candidates for the council are first screened by the faculty. In a few schools, the faculty actually does the nominating. Perhaps even more serious is the degree to which participation tends to be limited to the elected representatives rather than extended to every student in school. Ideally, the council should be the voice of all of the people. The youngest, poorest, least articulate, and least influential student in the entire high school should firmly believe, with all of his fellows, that he may present an idea which will affect the whole school through its transmission to the floor of the student council. Actually, as a result of our typically extracurricular elective base, little time is ever spent on school-wide discussions and group decisions at the constituent level. The identity of the council members

is seldom remembered by the average student. He feels little concern about their decisions, or the reasons which prompted them—for they are not *his* reasons, *his* decisions.

Under these conditions, the student council tends more and more to become another school club, perhaps even a notch or two below some of the others in influence and importance. Members of the council, out of touch with the thinking of their constituents, tend to become oligarchists or members of a ruling clique instead of servants of the people.

Another factor helps to diminish the importance of the council. As a result of their confusion about its real function, high-school principals and council advisers are still trying to frame up a limited field of legitimate activities for the council to assume. Many of us are not gifted with the faith in young people or the skill in working with them which is vitally needed in this process. Some of us are not above attempting to control the council's decisions by what we call "careful guidance." A few of us have so controlled and circumscribed the council's activities that it has acquired among the students a reputation as a group of stooges and rubber stamps. Under such conditions as these, the problems tackled by the council will rarely be real ones to students, and this unreality or artificiality will further diminish the council's usefulness as an instrument for democratic education.

To sum it all up, we have not always had a real faith in our students. We have not always acted as though we believed that young people are fundamentally good, that they, like us, want the good and well-ordered life, and that they can achieve it through actual participation as citizens of their school-community. It is this faith in the people which lies at the root of democracy, and without this faith the tree cannot bear any fruit. Where student participation has achieved results, it was because someone believed in it. As we examine the history of the student council movement, it becomes evident that the student council has not usually had a real chance as an instrument of civic education. Yet, in spite of the limitations imposed by the structure and philosophy of the schools in which it must operate, the student council has persisted and even extended as a movement. Thousands of worthy achievements testify to the fact that our students want to be full citizens—that they have high ideals and the energy to pursue them, that they can, in short, be trusted to assume a significant role in their own government. These achievements, this growth, have been possible only because someone in the school had faith in the basic goodness of students.

During the past fifteen years, while student participation was still maintaining a somewhat peripheral role as an extracurricular device, certain changes have gradually made an impact on the total philosophy of the school. These changes may have a far-reaching significance for the student participation movement; for the high school, which the student council entered at a period when it was still thoroughly authoritarian in its phi-

losophy, is gradually and recently becoming conscious of the democratic way of life.

A NEW OUTLOOK

Beginning with successful experiments in the 1930's, the teacher-pupil planning motif has entered the classroom. In newer curricula such as home-making and agriculture, the change in the whole approach to instruction is so sharp as to be clearly noticeable. English, social science, mathematics, and science teachers have been slower to investigate and experiment with classroom democracy, but the recent removal by colleges and universities of their sequence requirements has encouraged the trend. Meanwhile, the core curriculum, under various titles and with various introductory stages, has made a considerable impact on the teacher-pupil relationship. Those who have visited high schools over the years agree that a new goal is evident in the classrooms. High-school students are actually making choices in the instructional process. Teachers are becoming aware of the new science of group dynamics and of its implications for high-school classes. Larger blocks of time, a characteristic of the core curriculum, are making possible a real constituent base for the student council. Some council representatives are discovering that there is not only time, but also a real encouragement from their core teacher, to report council affairs to their constituents and to become true "servants of people." In the schools where the skills of group planning and evaluation have become a classroom goal, the possibilities for the student council are almost limitless. In such schools there is no problem of interesting the home room in the student council report. The council representative often finds instead that he must be on his toes in order to keep up with the plans for school betterment that are going forward in his own room. The climate of democracy obtains in the place where it can really affect things—namely the classroom.

This same spirit of inquiry into the ways of democracy has also invaded the realm of administration. Some high-school principals no longer find it necessary or desirable to make all of the decisions for the faculty. In many schools, policies are increasingly being developed by the co-operative planning of the whole staff, and even of community representatives. Administrators are beginning to be concerned about such things as the role of the status leader in a democratic-planning situation, the development of the techniques of reaching consensus, the evaluation of growth in group-planning skill. Such concern for the techniques of democracy cannot help but influence student participation favorably. Democracy has a certain contagion about it. Teachers who are challenged to share in school planning are quite apt to challenge students to share, too. The ground for democracy is growing more fertile, and the effect of this more promising *milieu* upon student participation is already evident in many schools.

There are those who will warn us that we must not be too optimistic. Old ways change slowly. The high school is still a fundamentally authoritarian institution. The concern for group process referred to earlier has not penetrated all high-school faculties or administrations. Indeed, the number of schools where teacher-pupil planning and the other processes of democracy are evident is still discouragingly small.

Yet the beginnings which we have reported appear to have truly dynamic possibilities. The recent war and the stalemate which has ensued since have served to sharpen the democratic values in our thinking as educators. The rapid growth of the science of group dynamics and the discoveries of modern educational psychology have given a tremendous boost to those who would help young people learn democracy by living it. We are teaching school in an era of basic transition from old to new—from the authoritarian to the democratic way of living and of learning. Out of this era we are certain to emerge with better student councils, now founded strongly on a grass-roots kind of democracy. I hope I live long enough to see this exciting state of affairs.

Group V—Little Theatre

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INTERROGATORS AND CONSULTANTS:

C. M. Withers, Principal, High School, North Plainfield, New Jersey.

S. R. Clark, Principal, High School, Sheridan, Wyoming.

What Kind of Guidance and Counseling Programs in the Senior High School?

EARL E. SECHRIEST

GUIDANCE is an outstanding need in the program of the present-day secondary school. The traditional curriculum pattern followed by the majority of our secondary schools is responsible, in part at least, for the maladjustment of some of our students since it is difficult to adjust such a limited program to every pupil. Let us admit then that our secondary-school curriculum should provide as wide choice of courses as is possible. Even in schools fortunate enough to have a broad curriculum, however, there is no certainty that pupils will select the course which is best suited to them. Pupils need guidance in making this choice. For example, in one particular area that was surveyed, it was found that the majority of G.I.'s wanted to study engineering on entering college. However, the sad truth was that these boys had failed to get the mathematics and science that they needed in high school

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as prerequisites for the engineering course. As another example, take the case of J. D. who was determined to go to college to study pre-med but was never able to pass a high-school course in elementary chemistry. He enrolled in college and was promptly eliminated at the end of the first quarter.

On the positive side, there are countless examples of suiting a broad secondary-school curriculum to an individual pupil's need. Take the case of Jimmie M. who came to high school in a wheel chair. He was strapped to the chair and had no use of his lower limbs. He could raise his hands slightly. He could not even speak distinctly. In a school of some eighteen hundred pupils, it looked as if Jimmie might turn out to be quite a problem. However, a program was arranged for him which centered around speech correction. One of the star football players working in the speech clinic took him in hand. Before many days, Jimmie was sitting in his wheel chair catching a tennis ball. Later on, he learned to pitch it also. This happened in September, and soon other things began happening to Jimmie. At the Christmas auditorium program for the entire student body, the principal was amazed to see one of the boys wheel Jimmie onto the stage. With a microphone attached to his chair, Jimmie then proceeded to read a part of Dicken's Christmas Carol as his contribution to the program. He read the selection surprisingly well, and the student body really gave him an ovation when he had finished. Jimmie was now on his way. Instead of being a problem, he has become an inspiration to the students that have come in contact with him.

In Colonial times everything was raised or made on the farm. Labor was not specialized. The men rolled the logs, husked the corn, and threshed the grain while the women spun the thread, wove the cloth, and fashioned it into garments. The farmer was his own blacksmith, plumber, and mechanic. The boys learned from their fathers to dig wells, tend cattle, build fences. The girls learned from their mothers to churn butter, weave cloth, and become experts in other household tasks. In the modern home there is little work left for a boy or a girl to do. The home is no longer in the training position it once held. Our apprenticeship system is gone, and furthermore, we are now living in an age of specialization. These changed conditions throw added responsibility on the school.

Nor is this the entire picture. Fifty years ago we had no automobiles, no radios, no television. We had very few telephones and electric lights, no aviation, few paved roads, no atom bomb. The present day world is making enormous demands on the emotional life of its children. Secondary schools, as well as homes, have a responsibility as well as an opportunity to guide youth through day-to-day experience to the end that they will become happy, well adjusted, useful citizens of our democracy.

There was the case of a high-school senior girl who was transferred from another school because she was so poorly adjusted that she took rat poison

and had to be rushed to the hospital for treatment. She sat around in the adviser's office and cried a good part of the time—would only attend a class occasionally. She was an intelligent girl and had no trouble in making passing grades, but she was definitely a psychopathic individual. She was treated kindly by the faculty and a small group of girls was assigned to be especially friendly to her. Her trips to the adviser's office became less frequent, she cried less, attended her classes more often, although several times she threatened to go to the third floor of the building and jump out of the window. The year came to an end, Mary Jane stopped crying, she did not jump, and she was graduated with her class. The last report was that she is employed as a stenographer. Yes, there is need for guidance—a guidance program that takes into consideration the whole personality of the pupil.

HOW PROMOTE GUIDANCE?

But how can such a guidance program be carried out? According to writers in the field, the following are features through which guidance can be exercised in the present-day secondary school. The results of a recent survey, made by sampling the membership of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, shows that these administrators generally not only recognize these features but approve of them. They are as follows:

1. School publications
2. The organization of the program of studies
3. The study of occupations
4. Home-room programs
5. Pupil measurement, case study, and records
6. Counseling
7. Personnel and organization for guidance and counseling
8. Placement and follow-up

1. Publications

Some of the more common publications found in the secondary school are the school annual, the newspaper, magazine, student handbook, and daily bulletin. The two most useful, perhaps, in connection with the guidance program are the school newspaper and the handbook. The school newspaper serves as a laboratory project for the journalism class and gives the pupils an opportunity to try their skill at writing, circulation, advertising, and general business management. This activity should be a pupil activity under faculty supervision. To all students such a newspaper is essentially theirs, and, for this reason, they take great pride in it.

The handbook is a very useful guidance tool in any high school, large or small. There are many things about a school that become traditional and should be passed on from one school generation to the next. Certain things concerning the curriculum, the school program, the extracurriculum, the organization, the faculty, and the school plant can so easily be taken for granted that our ever-changing school population will not be aware of them.

The school handbook, in these days of high printing costs, has turned out to be a rather expensive item, but it is worth all that it costs when properly used. The student council under faculty supervision should prepare the handbook and revise it from time to time. It should be placed in the hands of each student without cost to him. It should be discussed from time to time either in the home room or in a class. The pupil should be held responsible for its contents.

2. *The Organization of the Program of Studies*

Secondary schools generally have been adverse to changes in the curriculum. Only occasionally do we find radical departures from the traditional. Most high schools should start to reorganize the curriculum keeping in mind such things as problems facing youth, the American way of life, the democratic function of society, and the roles of general education, of vocational education, and of the liberal arts as they will affect the lives of our future citizens. A major piece of work needs to be done in this area.

3. *The Study of Occupations*

Many of our secondary schools give courses in occupations. This sounds good but in reality most of these courses consist of a few stereotyped occupations taught directly from the book with the result that we have another bookish course of doubtful value added to our curriculum. A more recent trend, which seems to be gaining favor, is that of short exploratory courses in occupations. For example, let the pupil select woodworking and follow it for a period of six weeks. Then he will switch to machine shop, let us say, and after a like period, he will rotate to auto mechanics, the electric shop, or some other shop course. Through practical experience then, by the end of the year, the pupil will have a better idea of the work he would like to continue. The diversified occupation and distributive education courses now being offered in some of our high schools seem to be working out very well and are steps in the right direction.

4. *Home-room Programs*

If we accept the fact that the knowledge of the individual pupils is fundamental in the guidance program, we must adjust our school organization so that they and their teachers have an opportunity to know each other. When guidance was introduced in the secondary schools, the need for some bond of close relationship between pupil and teacher resulted in the development of the home-room program. The home room, as the term is used, is the school home of the pupil. It corresponds to the home or family in our social organization. It is the room to which the pupil reports, where his records are kept, where he is assigned for guidance, where he may go for help or advice. It is the center of the school life for the pupil.

The home-room teacher will learn to know the pupil through his various relationships—in his studies, through his attitudes, his interests, his abilities,

his problems, his physical and mental health, his associates in school and out, his home, and his community environment. The pupil will profit from the home-room program in the degree to which he recognizes the strength in the school organization and its activities. He will profit by the guidance of the home-room teacher in accordance with the teacher's qualities for leadership.

The home-room idea has never been popular with the majority of secondary-school teachers. In the first place, they feel like it is an extra chore that has been assigned to them. They do not like to take time to visit the homes of the pupils. They also say that they do not, as a rule, teach pupils who belong to their home room; therefore, they cannot possibly know as much about them as the classroom teacher. As a result, the home room can easily revert into just another study hall—one where records and reports are made and kept. As a matter of fact, the teacher is the weakest link in the home-room organization. Teachers generally have not had suitable training and background for successful guidance work. Most of them did not study child psychology, testing and measuring, counseling, interviewing, *etc.* when they were in school. Because many teachers are unwilling or unsuccessful in this kind of work, a number of schools have discontinued their home-room organization. It is interesting to note however, that in the recent sampling of secondary schools already referred to, seventy-five per cent of the principals stated that they consider home-room guidance desirable in their schools.

5. *Pupil Measurement, Case Study, and Records*

One important duty of the school is to direct the efforts of pupils into lines of work suitable to their aptitudes and abilities. Accurate scores from reliable standardized tests will be useful for teachers and counselors in forming more accurate judgments and also to point to pupils and to parents the direction of attainable goals. Usually these tests are given to large blocks of pupils. Since their results are useful in the guidance program, guidance workers should have a part in planning the testing program. Another aspect of the school's testing program deals with group tests given solely for guidance purposes. Economy is the only justification of group testing for guidance purposes. In order to be of most service to the guidance worker, it is generally agreed that the testing program should be given about the sophomore year.

There is a tendency for beginning counselors or guidance workers to undertake a program that is too ambitious. To begin with, three or four good tests will more than likely be all that can be properly administered, recorded, and used in any one year. There are literally thousands of tests available but a good intelligence test, an achievement test, an interest inventory, and a personality adjustment might make a good starter for any high school. The results of these tests should be carefully recorded along with other data in the pupil's cumulative record. If a test is worth giving, the results are worth re-

coding. Profiles should also be made and filed in the cumulative record. These data should be available for use.

Where a special problem arises, the case study can be a very important part of the cumulative record. Case studies are time consuming to make, but they are very revealing to the guidance worker. One way of making case studies is to assign each teacher one problem pupil and let her study the pupil for a period of one year and make her report in the form of a case study. This method has proven successful in a number of schools.

6. *Counseling*

Counseling and interviewing are closely related and for all practical purposes we may think of the interview as part of the counseling process. It has been truly said that: "Counseling is the heart of the guidance program." There are many types of counseling carried on in a modern school by many different people. Some counseling is done by the principal, the advisers to boys and girls, the director of the student organization, the classroom teacher, and in many schools there are persons who are designated as counselors. Those persons who are designated as counselors usually teach one class and spend the remainder of their time in counseling students. Some writers in the field of guidance recommend that one such counselor should be provided for every one hundred and fifty to two hundred pupils enrolled in the school.

In the before-mentioned survey made of secondary schools, two of the questions asked were: (1) Is the guidance program in your school satisfactory? (2) Do you have sufficient staff for carrying out your program? To the first, ninety-one per cent answered in the negative. To the second question, eighty per cent answered in the negative. Judging from these replies it would seem that the question of trained personnel is a major difficulty in today's guidance program. If we use the figures mentioned by the experts in calculating guidance needs, a school with an enrollment of eighteen hundred would need ten or twelve counselors in order to have an effective guidance program. There will be very few schools in our time that will have such a staff for counseling. First of all, there are not that many trained counselors available. Secondly, very few school systems will provide for the extra expenditure necessary to carry through such a program.

It is very doubtful if we will ever be able to give individual counseling service to every pupil. The way out of our dilemma would seem to be for our secondary schools to offer classes in guidance taught by the counselor which would be optional to all students. Many general problems could be handled in this way. Individual counseling could then be done in specific cases where the need seemed greatest. It should be noted further that, since trained personnel in the guidance field is so limited, the high-school principal should select some of his most promising instructors who show an interest in this field and develop them into counselors and guidance workers.

7. *Placement and Follow-up*

The placement and follow-up services are very important parts of the secondary-school guidance program and perhaps the most neglected. The placement service would do well to work in close co-operation with the United States Employment service where this service is available. However, placement means more than seeing that a pupil gets to college or gets a job. It should mean that the pupil gets to the proper college for the thing that he wants to do, or gets the position for which he is best fitted and where he can become a happy, useful citizen.

The school should make a survey of the different types of jobs in the particular community that it serves as well as of the yearly needs of employers in that vicinity. There is not much point in training one hundred stenographers yearly if only twenty-five possible jobs will be available. The same is true of the professions. Overcrowded vocations and professions should be pointed out to pupils along the way. This should help to solve some placement problems. Junior placement offices are being maintained in some cities to aid young folk in securing employment.

It would be a short-sighted policy to help a student select a suitable vocation then drop him before he has begun to realize his ambition. The school has a definite responsibility to former students not only until they secure employment but also until they are located where their talents and training are in harmony with their surroundings. Our high schools have frequently neglected this responsibility.

Dr. Spears, in his book, *High Schools of Today*, states that an effective guidance program is one that helps a youth see more clearly these four things: (1) where he has been; (2) where he is now; (3) where he is going; and (4) what he has with which to get there. We submit this program as a means toward this end. Our goal is the growth of the individual as he takes his place as a well-adjusted, happy, contributing member of our democratic society.

Guidance and Counseling Services in the Senior High School

WILLIS E. DUGAN

ORGANIZING an effective program of guidance services and working relationships within the senior high school where teachers and administrators have a "student-personnel point of view" becomes a process of utilizing available resources and techniques. Such emphasis may take the form of (1) discovering real needs and problems of students, (2) using information collected about students to adjust instruction to meet individual needs, (3) developing more understanding attitudes on the part of teachers toward pupil behavior, and (4) providing certain of the specialized services such as orien-

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tation, individual inventory, counseling, vocational information, group guidance, health examinations, and the like.

The guidance function in the present-day school is becoming generally recognized as an integral part of the philosophy, administration, and instructional program of the school. It is not the sole prerogative of a special department, bureau or clinic. Such a function is a part of what every teacher does in understanding, motivating, and guiding the learning of each student. It includes the parent-teacher conferences; the principal's interview with a misbehaving boy; the librarian's search for occupational information to be used by students in a social studies class; the nurse's concern and follow-up of a child's repeated absences for illness; the club leader's efforts to help a shy new student become accepted in an activity group; a counselor's interview with a student about personal, educational, or vocational plans; and the case study conference held by a group of teachers to understand more adequately the adjustment and development of a particular student. In short, the guidance point of view can and should permeate all teaching and specialized educational services of the school. Out of such an emphasis may develop more specific guidance services, a counselor or co-ordinator of guidance activities, and more effective use of information so that teachers can stress the learning of individual students rather than the teaching of a course of study.

GUIDANCE SERVICES DEVELOP FROM WITHIN

An effective working attitude and program of guidance is developed from within the school with full knowledge and co-operation of the teaching staff. Guidance should not be something superimposed upon a school by administrative edict in the form of a "department" or the adoption of a program that worked in some other school. The best assurance for the development of a guidance point of view in teaching and a fuller use of available resources for guidance services with students is a well-trained, carefully selected corps of teachers. Schools that reach the point of designating part-time or full-time trained guidance counselors may find them on their present teaching staff and gradually release them from some teaching assignments to secure further training and then perform needed specialized services.

WHY THE GUIDANCE EMPHASIS?

Great expectations are held for present-day schools. There is a tendency for school staff to take more responsibility for the total development of students for present-day living. *New needs* of students are recognized as a new understanding has developed of the dynamic nature of the human personality. The social demands of a complex society provide problems of adjustment never before experienced. The wider range of individual differences and more heterogeneous population of students enrolled in our high schools today contrasts sharply with thirty or even twenty years ago. It is estimated that seventy to seventy-five per cent of youth of high-school age are now enrolled in school

as compared with forty-seven per cent in 1930 and twenty-four per cent in 1920. This increase in numbers has meant a consequent increase in the range of differences and an increase in the variety of student problems. School curricula have expanded and this wider range of course offerings provides problems of choice that call for careful educational advising. *New objectives* of the school have been recognized which call for consideration of student needs outside the classroom and in terms of physical, social, and emotional needs as well as intellectual or academic development. Guiding and assisting pupil growth in self-realization, human relationships, civic responsibility, and vocational and economic efficiency places new and challenging demands upon teachers and our educational processes. *New tools and procedures* have been developed to deal with new needs and with old needs in new ways. Differential aptitude tests, sociometric measurements, personality diagnosis, group dynamics, and psycho-therapy through counseling are some of the developments which enlarge the effectiveness of both teaching and guidance procedures.

SOME BASIC PRINCIPLES

Guidance work is not "telling" students what they should do. It is more than a testing program, a home room, a vocation class, although these may be *parts* of a guidance program. The modern concept of guidance is that of a program of services designed to individualize the school experiences of the student and to assist him to become the most effective person possible. Some specific principles of guidance are:

1. Guidance is concerned with the "whole" student, not with his intellectual life alone.
2. Guidance is concerned with all students, not special or "problem" students.
3. Guidance is concerned primarily with prevention rather than cure.
4. Guidance is a function of more than the specialist.
5. Guidance is concerned with the choices and decisions to be made by the student.
6. Guidance is concerned with developing student self-understanding and self-determination.
7. Guidance is "counsel" not "compulsion."
8. Guidance is a continuous process throughout the school life of each student.

SOME ESSENTIAL CONDITIONS

Certain conditions in the school are essential to the effective performance of a guidance program. They are:

1. The acceptance by the school staff of a point of view or educational philosophy which recognizes that youth vary widely in their capacities, backgrounds, and interests and should be treated accordingly; that the school is concerned with the development of the person and not mere-

ly his mind; that the school starts the education of the pupil from where he *is* rather than from where we think he should be.

2. Some specialized guidance services, in addition to instruction and administrative services, must be made available to the pupils.
3. The responsibility for the guidance program is delegated by the principal to a qualified person.
4. Time, space and materials are provided for the program and for the leader-counselor.
5. It is assumed that all the school has guidance responsibilities with the leader of the program providing skilled help with individuals, leadership of teachers, and the planning of a program.

Some of these conditions are better fulfilled in the elementary school than in the high school. The difference between the guidance program at these levels is in terms of the difference and complexity of student needs at different ages. There is a difference also as a result of the departmental organization of the high school which requires somewhat greater specialization of the staff.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR ORGANIZING AND DEVELOPING GUIDANCE SERVICES

The main responsibility for encouraging, supporting, and providing for a program of guidance services rests with the school administrator. The superintendent or principal, as the case may be, must *provide the leadership* in developing the program and must *accept the responsibility* for continuous improvement of the program. The success of the school administrator in stimulating the development of guidance service to students will depend to a great extent upon the quality and active interest of the teaching staff.

FIVE BASIC CONSIDERATIONS IN PROGRAM DEVELOPMENT

A number of different developmental approaches might be used, depending upon the present level of educational services in the school and the readiness of faculty and community for extension and improvements of these services. The following points have implications for all schools that are concerned with the initial development and the continued improvement of guidance functions. The sequence in which these moves are made will depend upon the conditions existing in an individual school.

1. *Co-operative Planning.* Guidance services will affect directly many persons in the school and community. All should be in on the "ground floor" of planning and developing the program. Unless the need for guidance is recognized and its specific services understood by those most immediately concerned, little can be accomplished. There must be a readiness—not just by the administrator who will be generally responsible for the initial leadership and stimulation—but by teachers, students, staff specialists, parents, and board members. A few specifics that will generate group planning and action are:

Faculty meetings devoted specifically to guidance matters

A consideration of the results of student needs and an analysis of needs not being met by existing educational services

Visits by faculty members to schools having guidance services to observe how they operate

Attendance at summer school for additional training by faculty who report back to the entire staff

In-service training of faculty through discussions led by trained guidance leaders, reports of local youth surveys, illustrative case study conferences, provision of adequate literature and materials for staff study and discussion.

A guidance council or committee representing administration, teachers and students will serve as a nucleus to make specific proposals and plans. Development of objectives, plans, and specific guidance procedures through the active participation of those most immediately concerned, is preferred to the imposition upon faculty and student body of an ever-so-carefully planned student-personnel program.

2. *Survey of Needs.* Co-operative planning and action must be based on facts. No single pattern of guidance program will fit all schools. Differences in type of guidance organization and in the specific services offered will depend upon the particular needs and characteristics of the student population and community. Initial planning, therefore, must proceed from such factual information. The focus of attention in the development of specific services and procedures must be upon known student needs and problems. Facts about students' needs can be secured by the use of a school and community survey checklist to ascertain existing services and gaps; a community occupational survey; follow-up studies of school leavers to determine "drop out" rate, educational and vocational status of former students, reactions of students to school experiences; and a student-council study of guidance needs.

3. *Definition of Objectives.* A main responsibility of the guidance council, following the study and discussion of needs, is to define specific purposes of the guidance program. The establishment of goals will provide some consistency and direction for action steps to be taken. The objectives might be broad; such as:

To develop more adequate understanding of student needs and characteristics

To provide needed data about students to teachers and counselors

To provide individual counseling for students

To develop a suitable program of group guidance, social and personal development opportunities

To reduce "drop out" and to follow-up school leavers. The objectives might be more specific and in terms of action steps, such as:

To establish a cumulative record (beginning at grade 9, or for all high-school students, etc.)

- To improve appraisal of students by use of tests, questionnaire forms, teachers' anecdotes, starting first with one grade or group
- To provide released time for teachers to do individual counseling
- To establish a home-room committee to improve guidance functions in the home room
- To set up a library of occupational and educational information
- To make a community occupational survey to discover job opportunities open to school youth.

4. *Provision of Leadership and Facilities.* If guidance services are to be performed, qualified persons with time, space, and materials with which to work must be provided. Well-trained full- or part-time counselors are needed if professional counseling is to be done. Some one qualified person must be given the responsibility for leadership and co-ordination of the services. In small schools, this may be the principal with qualified members of the teaching staff released on a part-time basis to do individual counseling for assigned groups of students.

5. *The Construction of Orderly Plan of Next Steps.* A planned program which has its initial steps at the point of greatest need for that particular school is a fundamental requirement. Any attempt to install all guidance services at once would probably result in diffusion and confusion. No more should be attempted at the start *than the school and the community are actually ready for and for which there is staff, time and materials.*

SOME SPECIFICS OF GUIDANCE IN THE SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL

What specific guidance services to develop first represents a real planning problem for the typical school. The suggested specifics offered here are identified with the understanding that the same initial step will not be appropriate in every school. One school might have a useful cumulative record plan and individual appraisal program in effect and wish to devote its attention now to the improvement of counseling services. Another school may be fully satisfied with its facilities and means for providing occupational and educational information, but desire to improve its individual inventory. Another school may have no particular guidance function specifically provided for and desire to begin with a planned orientation program for new students. Each of these specifics may have merit for a particular school. Wherever a school begins with improvement of its guidance service, it must recognize that point as an urgent need; possess objective facts and information regarding that need; and provide definite leadership, staff time, and facilities to assure effective development of the needed service.

Orientation of new students serves at least two useful purposes in the senior high school: (1) to acquaint the new student with the school, and (2) to acquaint the school through its administrative staff, teachers, and counselors, with the new student. Entering a new situation, whether it be a stu-

dent enrolling in school or an adult entering a new place of employment, often means a temporary period of insecurity. Unless some plan exists to help the individual meet the conditions and demands of the new environment, serious problems of adjustment and personal unhappiness may result. Learning about the new students through planned group orientation activities, individual interviews regarding educational and vocational plans, and through the use of entrance questionnaires and tests, all represent important aspects of the total orientation process. The orientation plan should be organized well in advance of the period for admission or transfer of new students. Some one needs to take the responsibility for leadership. This may be the principal, the school counselor, a designated home-room teacher, the student council, or a special committee. Present trends indicate more use of students in planning and conducting such orientation activities.

Individual appraisal and guidance records are essential elements of a well-integrated instructional and guidance program. Providing for individual differences through individualized instruction, remedial work, vocational planning, and personal counseling requires first of all that each student be understood as a person. Some specific purposes of the individual inventory in senior high school are:

1. To provide the school administration and faculty with general information about the characteristics of the total student population
2. To inform individual teachers regarding the characteristics of each student with whom they deal and the pattern of characteristics in each class
3. To provide counselors with needed information about each student
4. To assist individual students to a better self-understanding
5. To provide a basis for student personnel research, follow-up studies, and a continuing evaluation of guidance services.

The most important function of a comprehensive appraisal and record system is the *use* made by teachers and counselors for instruction and guidance. These data are a means to an end—not an end in themselves. Comprehensive cumulative records and appraisal data make it possible for the school to begin the processes of instruction and guidance for each student from the point where he is—rather than from a point where the school would like to have him be.

Occupational and educational information is an important need of senior high-school students as a basis for both present and future planning. Choosing a career is one of the important decisions that senior high-school students have to make. We have now gotten beyond the point of expecting that merely supplying occupational information—however plentiful and good—will meet the vocational-choice problems of students. In short, the senior high-school provisions for occupational information units, library files of occupational information, career conferences, and the like must be paralleled with an

equivalent provision for study of individual aptitudes, achievement, interests, try-out experiences, and the study of other personal qualifications. In the senior high school, educational and vocational planning should develop from the point of individual appraisal and self-analysis leading to self understanding as well as to an understanding of the world of work and vocational possibilities.

Group procedures in guidance at the senior high-school level take a variety of forms. Numerous special efforts have been attempted to counteract the rigidity enforced by a fixed curricular program and a highly departmentalized school organization. Advisory groups under a teacher-counselor plan, home rooms, club activities, recreational programs, orientation classes, and integrated and "common learnings" classes are a few of the antidotes familiarly prescribed.

The full significance that most school classes and other group activities hold for guidance purposes is seldom realized. Increased attention is needed in the training of teachers and other group activity leaders in understanding and dealing with the role of "group experience" in the development of the individual. Learning, in the form of facts, new experiences, and concepts, represents only one outcome of a group activity. Learning to work *in* a group, to participate freely and enthusiastically in a democratic atmosphere, to grow in self-understanding, end in personal and social maturity, should be guidance outcomes of group experience—whether classroom or extraclassroom in character.

Counseling services represent the heart and core of the guidance program in the senior high school. Counseling is performed by many persons, including teachers and administrators as well as trained counselors. Each performs this function in varying amounts and with varying competency. Counseling in a broad sense includes finding out about the student but more specifically the interview is the heart of the counseling process. Wrenn's definition clarifies this concept: "Student counseling is a purposeful, face-to-face relationship between counselor and student which focuses upon student growth in self-understanding and self-decision, and to which the counselor contributes through careful understanding and skillful assistance."

Counseling in the high schools is often thought to be chiefly concerned with educational and vocational guidance. While these matters of choice are important, we recognize that adjustment to immediate social and home difficulties and a realistic acceptance of one's self are dominant problems facing most senior high-school students.

Time and space do not permit consideration of many important aspects of the counseling job and counselor qualifications. One practical point that must be faced in all senior high-school counseling programs is the question of who should be counseled? Identification is made of five points where counseling contact should be provided in the senior high school.

1. *Pre-entrance or orientation interviews* to assist each student formulate his senior high-school plan. This systematic approach not only provides personal counseling contact for all students, but offers an opportunity to learn about immediate personal difficulties and to identify potential adjustment needs or problems.
2. *Drop-out interviews* should be provided for any student before the actual step of leaving school is completed. Re-adjustment of an educational plan, arrangements for financial assistance, job information, and the like may be positive outcomes resulting from such planned personal attention.
3. *Senior interviews* are probably the most commonly planned counseling contact in senior high school. Such interviews with graduating students may not only serve to clarify future plans and assist in post-high-school adjustment but will re-inforce the process of subsequent follow-up of graduates. Too often more counseling time is spent with those students who plan to go to college as compared with the majority of students who do not. More counseling emphasis is needed to help the seventy-five per cent or more who plan other types of post-high-school training or immediate job entrance.
4. *Voluntary counseling contacts* will be sought by increasing numbers of students if confidential and professional counseling services are provided. Students in general want information about their aptitudes and capabilities and will take advantage of planned opportunities and services to discuss personal and planning problems.
5. *Referral interviews* represent those resulting from identification of a student with an immediate or potential problem. An important guidance responsibility of teachers, administrators, activity leaders, the school nurse, and others is to identify and refer to the school counselor those students who may need such personal assistance.

Placement and follow-up services are among the least emphasized school guidance functions. The Educational Policies Commission notes the significance of these services in its statement that: "Not until it is reasonably certain that a youth is launched on his adult career, with a fair outlook for success suited to his abilities, is the school's obligation discharged. Even then, some responsibility may continue." Specific plans and techniques have been developed for this important guidance service by the National Association of Secondary-School Principals. Our job in the senior high school is to put these procedures into realistic and practical operation.

Current trends and developments in secondary-school philosophy and practice lend much encouragement to more adequate provision of some of these specifics of guidance service and most important of all to the thorough integration of the guidance point of view and practice with the total educational process.

Group VI—Room 204

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How Shall We Plan and Maintain the School Plant?

WM. B. ITTNER

I HAVE been asked to address you on the subject "How Shall We Plan and Maintain the School Plant?" A broad subject for a twenty-minute presentation, but one that covers two very closely related phases of any building program—design and its effect on maintenance.

As a subject for this discussion, we shall select a new high-school building for a thriving suburban community not too far from a metropolitan center and beset with all of the growing pains for such a district. For the sake of brevity we will make some very important assumptions that would, if followed through to their logical end, consume considerable time.

First, we will assume that the board of education has been farsighted enough and has kept abreast of community development to the extent that it has acquired a site of some fifteen to twenty acres of slightly rolling ground lying normal to street grades, and not requiring removal of heavy overgrade or excessive fill. It is properly located in regard to school population, future community development, and blessed with adequate public transportation, utilities, and the like. What an assumption to make! Far too often we are confronted with just the opposite conditions: site too small, perched on the side of a mountain, or at the very bottom of one, requiring excessive grading, poor location in reference to school population, and no transportation or utilities whatsoever. I cannot emphasize too strongly the need for constructive long-distance planning and the broad vision in acquiring the necessary land for the development of a progressive educational program. I also recommend that the architect be chosen and consulted during this preliminary stage. His training and experience should be of material assistance and in this manner help eliminate some of the pitfalls so often encountered.

We shall also assume that funds for the building are available, or at least, bonds can be voted to finance the project. If this project runs true to form, these funds will not be adequate, but will be all of the money the district can raise under our present inadequate tax and bonding set-up. I shall not try, in this discussion, to cover this phase of the problem. In many states an effort is

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under way, and in some cases already accomplished, to change our methods of valuation, or our bonding limits to allow more money for building purposes. The Federal government is also considering bills that may prove to be helpful. Certainly with our increased enrollment and with costs as they are today, some method or system must be devised to give committees more money for buildings.

By this process of making assumptions, we have covered a phase of every building project that sometimes takes years to accomplish. We have arrived at the point where we can give consideration to the actual building and can establish a PROGRAM.

DEVELOPING THE PROGRAM

This program is of tremendous importance and will involve considerable research and study on the part of those in charge of the project, (generally the superintendent of schools and a group of his associates). Consideration will have been given to the particular method of teaching employed by the district, and requirements will have been assembled from the various department heads. County and state educational departments will have been consulted, and from this data the plan of the building will be developed. These requirements must be analyzed with considerable care. Each recommendation will be found, generally, to be staggering in its proportions. The funds available, if used to satisfy each individual demand would build a very satisfactory shop building, music department, science research building, an art center, and so on, with nothing left for the rest of the building.

So careful analysis and allotment of funds is in order before a complete program can be written consistent with the money available. I mention this to bring out the point that, with the large increase in school population and with high costs, any finished building is the result of many compromises. Compromises that must be made to make the project at all possible.

In preparing this program, thought must be given to community as well as the educational needs of the building. The athletic and recreational facilities must be developed and co-ordinated with the ultimate landscaping plan. A successful building depends in a large measure on the foresight, wisdom, and clear thinking of those in charge of the project.

CHOOSING THE DESIGN

The architect should also be a party to this preliminary planning, as his training and experience will be of material help in formulating a feasible scheme. This data previously referred to, is the material from which the initial sketches are drawn. Any successful plan must satisfy this program, must adapt the building to the particular site in question, and come within the funds available. From this plan evolves the design or appearance of the building. Here consideration must be given to the type and character of community being served. A successful plan will produce a successful design, and, as all

the pieces of the puzzle fit into their particular place, the character of the design will become apparent.

In developing design we must deal with two principal components of any building. One concerns itself with the physical aspects such as materials, determination of details, and the co-ordination of the structure with architectural design. These I will discuss at some length later. The other component deals with a far less tangible aspect, but one of great importance in the final success of the plant. This deals with the personality or atmosphere of the building. An architectural expression of inviting character, simple in conception and cheerful in execution will do much unconsciously to instill a better mental attitude in the student towards his school life. The proper use of mass and its relation to window openings, color, and proper use of our modern elements of design will create a beautiful building, and, if this beauty can be translated to the mind of the student, then a major step in his education has been accomplished. This need not increase the cost; in fact, if properly handled, it will actually decrease costs by eliminating all unnecessary detail.

I suppose that by now some of you are wondering why no mention has been made of how many square feet of windows should be used in classrooms or why no recommendations have been made for or against bilateral lighting, the one- or two-load corridor, or the square classroom as compared to the rectangular room. These components of any plan must be the result of careful analysis of the particular job under consideration, and a blanket recommendation without knowing the entire background would be of no value. When the teaching pattern has been determined and the technical problems solved, the units can be assembled into a coherent plan that is more than a mere amalgamation of rooms with corridor and exits.

Present-day high costs have offered a challenge to the educator, architect, and the manufacturers of building materials. There is constant search on the part of all concerned in this business of building schools to make the taxpayer's money buy more educational facilities, and of a lasting and economical character. As has been repeated so often, beauty is not dependent on elaboration, but on restraint and simplicity. Proper functional planning translated into modern design will give us these attributes.

FLEXIBILITY OF DESIGN

Buildings must be designed and constructed so that they are easily changed to accommodate and adapt themselves to our ever-changing educational program. Structures have become lighter and, therefore, less costly design effect is obtained through mass and color rather than ornament. Mechanical equipment has been and must be simplified to give the very maximum of service with a minimum maintenance cost. Materials must be chosen for maximum wear and minimum replacement. High costs emphasize the importance of taking advantage of all economies that are real economies. There is a big difference between economy and cheapness. Because of these high costs and large enroll-

ments, many buildings are being constructed that are just cheap and not economical from any standpoint. This type of building soon becomes a definite liability rather than an asset to a community, and maintenance and replacement becomes a major factor. True economy comes from careful and sensible educational planning and the use of the proper type of construction and materials. Buildings can be functional and economical and still possess a sense of beauty and elegance, which will give them a permanent quality.

DESIGN *versus* MAINTENANCE

We now reach a point in our planning where we can consider the actual problem of design *vs.* maintenance. In considering the example we have picked—a high school for an urban community—we will select materials for the exterior of the building that satisfy the following requirements: cost, adaptability, maintenance, and replacement. The nature and size of our site has given us a plan with semiattached units, parts of which will be one story; and others, two story as indicated by their usage. The exterior walls will be brick bearing, and interior columns and framing will be of steel. Slabs in general will be supported on bar joist except in a few isolated cases. Roofs will be either flat or low pitched for different portions of the building and adaptable to the climate in which the building is to be located. Parapet walls with their necessary flashing will be eliminated. Roofs will have overhanging canopies or eaves to protect the walls below, and where possible, keep the direct rays of the sun from classroom windows. Study will be given to the proper diffusion of direct sunlight. Flat roofs will be covered with tar and gravel roofing, bonded type. Low-pitched roofs will be either tile or slate, depending upon local conditions. Flashings, canopy edgings, and exterior downspouts (if any) will be of copper. Window sills will be of a material to give as few joints as possible, or better still, covered with an extruded metal covering. Windows will be either steel or aluminum, and exterior doors and frames will be of hollow metal construction. Exterior masonry walls will be damp-proofed before plastering is started.

Interior finishes will be selected not only with original cost in mind, but also be examined for their particular adaptability to the job they are supposed to do and just how well and long they will perform their function. First-floor corridors will have a flooring material picked for its resistance to abrasive wear such as terrazzo; second-floor corridors can be either linoleum or asphalt tile. Stair halls, where required, will be properly located in relation to corridors and school population.

As we are discussing a high school, corridors will have recessed lockers, and both corridors and stair halls will be wainscoted with a material offering maximum resistance to wear and discoloration. Here we have the choice of glazed tile, or terra cotta wainscots. Classrooms, in general, will have linoleum or asphalt tile floors, movable furniture, chalk boards and tack panels

and recessed cases and shelving as determined by the various educational requirements. Door frames will be of metal, and all finishes throughout will be light or natural finish in line with the sight-saving standards as recommended by various research groups.

Ceilings of all educational units will be acoustically treated, and special units such as auditoriums, music departments, and cafeterias will have acoustical treatments as determined by analysis of each unit. If possible, corridors should also be acoustically treated.

The average classroom will have the proper number of either semi-indirect incandescent or fluorescent fixtures, figured to provide twenty-five to thirty foot-candles at the working plane. Special units will be analyzed as to their particular usage, and units requiring special intensities or spot lighting will receive such treatment. A public address and radio system will be provided with controls centered in the administrative group with outlets in the auditorium and each educational unit. I feel that, in a few years, provision will have to be made for television reception. Certain educational units will have special provisions for visual education, and all units will have sufficient utility outlets for projection machines and maintenance work.

Steam will be generated from a central, low-pressure plant, and classrooms will be equipped with unit ventilators. Larger units, such as auditoriums and gymnasiums will receive their steam from this central plant, but will have their own ventilating systems. All units will be thermostatically controlled, and the building will be divided in sections, each of which can be heated separately for individual use.

Sufficient plumbing fixtures will be provided for the school population, divided into the proper number of units, and special rooms will have their own toilets, again for community use. Drinking fountains will be provided in the corridors with extra fountains for special units.

AND FINALLY

That is a very brief and incomplete description of a school building, which could be maintained with the minimum of effort and cost. Naturally, the final nature of many of these materials would be determined by conference with the directing authority, and a choice of different materials doing the same job is often available. It is well to keep in mind that in erecting a building, the same as buying a suit or an automobile you get, in general, just what you pay for. Each individual project requires careful analysis, and a method of construction or material solving the problem for one project may not solve it for another. The original selection of materials will determine in a large measure the success and permanence of our buildings, and no building can be a success if it starts going to pieces shortly after it is built.

Before closing I want to touch on one other point. The necessity of proper supervision during the construction period. Complete and detailed drawings

and explicit specifications mean nothing unless they are followed. They will undoubtedly contain many items that are included as the result of past experience on the part of the architect. These items are the ones that materially affect the maintenance qualities of the building. Full-time, competent, supervision is the only way to be sure that the contract drawings are being followed.

Present-day economics make it imperative that our thinking and research about school buildings result in a sane, sound, and sensible economy and not merely be examples of poor planning, shoddy construction, and mediocre design. Cheapness, never yet, has made for economy in anything and, least of all, in the construction field. Let us hope that this period of high costs will result in functional planning with complete elimination of waste and a type of school architecture that will be a real contribution not only to the present, but to the future as well.

How Shall We Plan and Maintain the School Plant?

ELLIS A. JARVIS

OUR topic is a very broad one and is covered by a wealth of literature and research. Perhaps the best orientation to the literature may be found in the 27th Yearbook of the American Association of School Administrators, entitled *American School Buildings*. As pointed out in this source, the literature, extensive as it may be, is still somewhat incomplete and much additional research needs to be done upon the problem. In this limited presentation we will confine ourselves to those aspects of the problem which are of direct concern to the secondary-school principal and will attempt to point out the pitfalls and point up the issues which may serve as guide posts for further discussion.

UNDERPLANNING

Don't be guilty of underplanning. This is one of the most costly and common mistakes we find as we study the plans of any number of existing plants. There are always many economic reasons why plants should be as small as possible at the time of construction, and there are many pressures directed toward achieving compromises which result in basically inadequate facilities. Against these factors and pressures we must weigh the educational and physical welfare of thousands of youth who will use the facilities. From a strictly financial point of view it is extremely expensive to carry out necessary remodeling and alterations at some later date when the school may be forced to accommodate two or three times the school population for which it was originally intended. The costs of adding to a school site, whether by direct purchase or condemnation, after surrounding land has been developed, are

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almost prohibitive. A course of action which at the time may have seemed prudent or economical may, with the perspective of years, look foolish and prove to be very expensive.

PARTICIPATION IN PLANNING

Too many of our present school plants throughout the nation are monuments to the thinking of one or a few individuals in the locality. This is no reflection on their ability. However, it should be obvious that, in the planning of a facility which involves such an investment and which has such a long, useful life, there should be wider participation. Those who are going to use the facilities or may have helpful thinking to contribute should be brought into the planning early. To ask people to rubber stamp plans after they are well under way is not true participation. It is essential that all those who are to be brought in on the planning be notified early enough so that they have time to familiarize themselves with the literature, with best practice, and with comparable existing plants. They should also have time to study their own specific problems with reference to the proposed accommodations. We must remember that, although pooling of thought is a helpful and valuable procedure and unless sufficient study goes into the problem, what we are actually liable to get is a pooling of ignorance. Whatever the plans for participation, it must be remembered that the final decision must be made, or endorsed, by a few top-level officials who have the final responsibility for the program.

LAND

At the top of the financial priority list we should place land. If you have land, you can probably build some kind of a school. Without land, you are helpless. As years go on, the educational demand for larger sites continues to increase. As development of land surrounding the school site continues, additions to the school site become less and less available. In view of these two factors, it is reasonable and economical to make sufficient provision for future needs in the original purchase. Suggested minimum size for sites for junior high schools might be twenty acres and for senior high school, thirty acres. It may be economical to plan school sites for as long as twenty-five or more years in advance. Advance planning with city planning commissions or other bodies directing the growth of communities will be very helpful in determining needs and in reserving sites in proposed developments.

PROJECTED SCHOOL POPULATION

In studying the projected school population, the secondary schools have the advantage of the experience and statistics of the contributing elementary schools. It is also possible to go beyond these figures and to make spot checks or complete censuses of preschool children in the area and to check with birth-date statistics. Influx of population from outside sources must, of course, be estimated. Degrees of mobility of population within the area served must be approximated. Characteristics of housing in the locality will be a factor

since some communities produce waves of school population which are not repeated until the property or occupancy thereof changes hands. Having determined the school population load, the size of the school will depend on its location and the location of other schools if such are needed or already existing.

TYPE OF CONSTRUCTION

Shall we build temporary buildings, permanent buildings, or a combination of the two? Characteristics of the projected school population comprise one of the determining factors. If there is very good reason to believe that we are dealing with a wave of school children, temporary construction seems to be an answer. On the other hand, too often the school population turns out to be more stable than anticipated and the temporary structures become permanent in usage and in thinking. The use of temporary structures for permanent purposes is unsatisfactory for a number of reasons. In the first place, the cost is high for the type of accommodations offered. This is true not only in construction cost but in maintenance cost. Then there is the problem of getting so far behind in the permanent construction program that the bringing up to permanent standard of these temporary plants cannot be accomplished financially. It should also be borne in mind that particularly for secondary schools the special facilities needed are woefully inadequate. It is true that for regular academic classes many teachers feel that bungalow-type accommodations are quite satisfactory. On the other hand, the children, particularly in inclement weather, must go from one bungalow to another without protection which is doubtful practice so far as health is concerned, as it subjects them to several abrupt changes of temperature during the day. The accommodation of a large school in a temporary type single-story accommodation necessitates spreading of the buildings over such a large area that undue time and energy are wasted in traveling, and general supervision becomes very difficult.

Time available to complete the building is an important factor in making decision as to type of construction. In actual practice, it seems to take two years or more to plan and construct a permanent secondary school. In some cases the pressure of school population is so great that this time lag is critical and some type of facilities must be provided. With temporary facilities, the construction time can be reduced to a matter of a few months and thus provide more immediate relief.

From the standpoint of economy, low maintenance cost, and more adequate educational facilities, it seems evident that permanent construction, if it can be accomplished, is the best buy.

Some combinations of temporary and permanent facilities have worked out very well. One procedure which seems to hold promise is to build a partial, temporary plant for immediate occupancy along with a number of one-story semi-permanent classrooms which will later become permanent. This then is immediately followed by permanent construction of central and special facil-

ities after completion of which the temporary structures are removed to another site and the semipermanent classrooms are left as a part of the permanent plant. Then as the population of the school may vary in the future, additional semipermanent classrooms are added or taken away as need dictates.

THE PLOT PLAN

Before ground is broken on the new site, the architect should be appointed and the plot plan showing ultimate utilization for the entire site should be developed. This should show the location of all proposed structures and should indicate the type of construction, the probable date of construction, and the relationship of the structures one to another. At the same time, ground improvements and utilization should be indicated. Space should be reserved on the plot for later building, if necessary to take care of future increases in enrollment which cannot be anticipated at the time. The plot plan should receive considerable study with reference to educational and recreational needs, including projected flow of pupil traffic and possible uses of certain facilities as community centers. So far as possible, the facilities used by community groups should be so located that they are available from the street and may be used individually without committing the whole school plant.

THE PLANT

Paradoxical as it may seem, it often occurs that the educational facilities in a new plant receive inadequate attention. Knowing the projected size of the school and the curriculum to be offered, it should be easy to work out a master program, or roster, for the school and to find therefrom the number and type of accommodations needed. The number of music rooms, art rooms, science rooms, homemaking rooms, shops, and so on can be calculated rather than left to be unconsidered or uninformed opinion of those who are not directly familiar with the problem. Provision for these special facilities should be adequate in the original plan. To extend the type of accommodation later runs into excessive costs; whereas many of these rooms can be used for regular academic classes if they are not needed immediately for the special subjects. Even with such planning it is probably wise to provide still other rooms with water, sinks, and gas so that they may be used for special types of activities in case of overload. The cost of getting these utilities into classrooms after the building is built is excessive.

At this point it becomes obvious that in carrying out the planning it will be necessary to make many decisions of educational policy, and to have clearly in mind the needs of the curriculum and the types of activity—curricular or extracurricular—which are to be provided. Problems regarding auditoriums, gymnasiums, cafeterias, little theatres, social rooms, student body facilities will all need clarification and resolution before the needs of these activities can be described and provided.

Next come the problems of detailed room and building standards. This is a point at which teacher interest is intense. It is incumbent upon the teacher to be aware of best practices within his subject field and to be sure that his requests are reasonable and in line with accepted practice. There is a great variation in the ability of people to visualize size and space relationships from drawings and blueprints. It is often helpful in making decisions on room or court areas or layout actually to mark them off on a clear piece of ground or on a large gymnasium floor and to experience the size relationship directly. This is particularly helpful in laying out arrangements for the attendance, guidance, health, cafeteria, student store, and similar facilities, as well as silence laboratories, homemaking rooms, and shops.

The service facilities will, of course, depend upon the requirement demands inherent in the policies determined for the school. The word of warning here is that they should be adequate since the expense of providing them later is generally excessive. It is particularly important to make adequate provision for cafeteria service and to locate the cafeteria so that multiple lunch hours may be instituted, if necessary, without disruption of the regular teaching program because of noise attendant thereon. If a high degree of participation in the school feeding program is desired, it is extremely important that facilities be such that students can be served quickly. Probably no single factor has a more deterring effect on student use of the cafeteria than undue "waiting in line." If outside feeding lines are to be maintained, the same principle holds—have enough of them.

If the plot plan is properly developed, location of playgrounds will be greatly facilitated. Large open spaces should not be broken up by minor building installations unless absolutely necessary. Playgrounds should be so located that the noise therefrom does not disturb the regular educational program. Easy street access for community use should also be considered.

MAINTENANCE

Good maintenance presupposes good construction and good custodial care. Much can be done in planning the original construction to keep maintenance figures at a minimum. In-service training programs, if necessary, should be instituted to maintain custodial care at a high level of efficiency. Maintenance requests or requisitions will, to some degree, arise from the individual school situation as the principal in his periodic inspection finds matters which need attention. Beyond this, however, it is desirable to provide periodic inspection by people skilled in the care and repair of school buildings in order to care for items which might be considered beyond the scope of the principal's direct daily concern. This is particularly true in a system which has a number of school plants. Figures recommended for maintenance cost generally run from one to two per cent of the cost of the original structure per year. For well-constructed buildings with regular inspection and prompt attention to main-

tenance needs, these figures are probably sufficient for this type of maintenance. For a broader type of maintenance programs, however, they are definitely inadequate. To avoid confusion in terms we will speak of this under the heading of alterations and improvements.

ALTERATIONS AND IMPROVEMENTS

Some of the items to be discussed under this heading might be considered maintenance and some might be considered capital outlay. Generally speaking, for those alterations and improvements which directly and immediately affect the educational program we may expect the individual principal to diagnose his needs and make necessary requests. Particularly in the case of larger school systems, it is necessary to review these items carefully in order to determine whether or not the projected alteration or improvement is in line with the accepted policies of the system as a whole.

Certain needs, however, must be disclosed by general survey of the plants of the system and, if deemed necessary, are best handled on a program basis in which all schools are brought up to an agreed upon standard. In any school system such items might be modernization of lighting, accoustical treatment, cafeteria remodeling, and so on.

It will be seen, therefore, that it is necessary not only to keep the individual school to an agreed upon standard of repair and effectiveness, but it is necessary also to have an organizational structure which provides for the periodic up-grading of the facilities throughout the school system.

It is hoped that this incomplete treatment of the topic provides sufficient delineation of problems and issues to serve as a spring board for the discussion which is to follow.

Group VII—Room 403

CHAIRMAN: *George A. Manning*, Principal, Senior High School, Muskegon, Michigan; Chairman, National Contest Committee, National Association of Secondary-School Principals.

INTERROGATORS AND CONSULTANTS:

Robert L. Fleming, Principal, South High School, Youngstown, Ohio.

James A. Davis, Principal, High School, Bessemer, Alabama.

How Can We Control Nonathletic Contests in Our Schools?

JOHN M. FRENCH

EXTRACURRICULAR activities have become an integral part of the program of our secondary schools. It is not the purpose of this discussion to justify their place in our school program. We are concerned at this time with the problems they have brought to the schools and to determine a method of control of these activities.

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In order to understand these problems, we should review the development of the problems and review the methods being carried out to have some control over those activities that exist on a national scale. The use of the term activities includes contests, gatherings, activities, tournaments, and any event bringing pupils together from different schools. A program of activities within a school or carried on by neighboring schools presents few problems to the administrator. As the number of activities increase and as they spread across the state and state boundaries, the problems of their administration increase.

At first many schools were indifferent to these activities or did as Mark Twain said about the weather, "There is much talk about it, but nobody does anything about it." Before World War II the number of activities that reached across state lines had increased to such an extent that many school people became concerned. These activities were held on school time requiring students to miss days of school and requiring the schools or their communities to raise considerable funds in order to defray the expenses of sending their representatives to the national meets.

These activities consisted of basketball tourneys, track meets, band contests, orchestra contests, choral contests, dramatic meets, debate tourneys, speech events, scholastic contests, assemblies to discuss newspapers and annuals, essays of numerous types, art and poster contests, and many others. There were nearly one hundred of these activities being promoted by schools, individuals, organizations, professional organizations, veterans' groups, departments of the government, colleges, *etc.*

All of these seemed worth while to those promoting them. They all felt they were doing a service to the schools by encouraging the students to participate in these activities. The advertising to the sponsoring groups was held to a minimum, but each promoting group believed that their particular activity was important. Many schoolmen felt that there should be some limits on these activities.

The states had no organized association to handle the problems of these nonathletic activities. Most of the state organizations centered their attention on athletic events and did a good job on solving the problem that arose concerning the athletic program. Principals wanted help on activities that were nonathletic, and some of the state organizations included in their jurisdiction the nonathletic program. They have organized the National Federation of Athletic Associations and have the athletic program under very good control.

Help in solving some of our difficulties came from the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, an organization of twenty states of the middle part of the United States. In 1935 it banned its schools from the National Basketball Tourney. This tourney has since been discontinued as have other athletic tourneys on the secondary-school level. The

North Central Association again led in helping control activities of all characters by passing in 1941 the following regulation: ALLIED ACTIVITIES PROGRAM:

The program of pupil and school activities is such as to meet the interests and needs of the pupils and of the community and is so planned as to contribute most effectively to the educational program. To the end that all activities of the high school contribute most effectively to the educational program, a secondary school which is a member of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools shall not participate in any district, state, interstate, or regional athletic, music, commercial, speech, or other contests or tournaments involving the participation of more than two schools, except those approved by the State Committee, or by that organization recognized by the State Committee as constituting the highest authority for the regulation and control of such activities.

A group of school representatives from Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, and Ohio met following this and agreed that no more than one individual should travel to a national activity from these states. They agreed that, if the schools were not beyond a seventy-five mile radius, the activity would not be regional in nature. This interpretation would allow schools on the boundary lines to compete with their near neighbors in the other states. This interpretation has been followed.

This action of the North Central Association eliminated many of the national nonathletic activities involving music, debate, and speech events. In 1942 the National Association of Secondary-School Principals appointed a committee on contests. This committee reported on contest activities. Following this, the Association appointed a contest evaluating committee with George A. Manning as chairman. Other members of his committee were appointed from the Chicago area for convenience in getting the committee together.

The work of this committee has been expanding and has been successful in getting organizations to come before it to apply for sanctions. In the committee's beginning, there were nearly one hundred activities seeking support from the schools. This list was reduced to about a dozen which were given sanction the first year. This was done by contacting each of the organizations and pointing out to them the problem their projects raised. Many organizations voluntarily dropped their projects. Others were turned down by the committee.

Each year this evaluating committee meets from two to three times to appraise activities requesting sanction. It has someone from the sponsoring agencies appear before it and present reasons for wanting to promote an activity in the schools. After these hearings, the committee decides whether the activity will be sanctioned. The August meeting is the most important, and all activities sanctioned up to that time are published in the October issue of *THE BULLETIN*. Applications must be made each year, but after an activity is once sanctioned, it is not necessary for sponsoring groups to appear

except by written application each year. The evaluating committee has adopted a list of criteria for its use in studying the many applications. Following is the list which appears on the back of the application blank for sanction.

CRITERIA FOR CONTESTS, TOURNAMENTS, AND OTHER
INTERSCHOLASTIC ACTIVITIES

1. The purpose and objective of any contest or activity must be sound and timely.
 - a. Worthy
 - b. Stimulating to student and school
 - c. Desirable in our schools
 - d. Philanthropic wherever possible
 1. Scholarships for worthy students
 2. Useful prizes and awards
 - e. Commercial aspects must never outweigh the educational values.
2. Contest or activity should be well planned and have adequate and impartial evaluation.
3. Contests should not duplicate other contests or activities by other organizations. The same organization should not conduct more than one contest in the same school year.
4. Prizes and awards adequate in number and amount.
5. The contest must not add a heavy burden to student, teacher, and school.
 - a. The student or school should not be required to pay an entry fee to participate.
6. Preferably not more than one student winner per state if travel outside state is required.
7. Applications for approval of contests must be complete and filed with the National Contest Committee before August 7, for consideration for the ensuing school year.
8. The subject of an essay must not be controversial, commercial, or sectarian. Propaganda, good or bad, should be avoided.
9. The organization offering the contest or other activity must be engaged in a creditable or generally accepted enterprise or activity regardless of kind and character of prizes offered.
10. Approval of contest by National Contest Committee does not imply approval of state committees. Each state has its own secondary-school authority. Many states have their own contest committees. Approval should be renewed from the proper authority in each state.
11. Contests must not require excessive or frequent absence of participants from school.

In addition to this, it is recommended that only one individual can travel beyond state lines for final activities. It is recommended that schools enter not more than two essay and oratorical contests on a national basis each year. Where only a few from each school enter an essay contest, this provision does not hold. The sanction of the national committee does not mean that each state committee should not receive and pass on these activities for its own state. The committee sanctions more activities than any school should enter. Schools themselves make the choice of the ones they are interested in entering.

The committee itself has no power of preventing schools from entering nonapproved activities. It is here again that regional accrediting agencies such as the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools have helped by adopting the list of the Principals' Association as their own and requiring schools to report the activities in which they have participated each year when they make their annual report. Each year the influence of these organizations is felt as additional groups, that before promoted their activities without sanction, request sanction.

The North Central Association approved a committee on contests with Lowell B. Fisher of Illinois as chairman to study the problem and report to the annual meeting. This committee of the North Central Association has approved the list put out by the evaluating committee of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals. Mr. Fisher has been present at several of these committee meetings.

The enforcement of the sanctions of this evaluating committee by the regional agencies encourages us to believe that an extension of this program should be made by having an activity committee from each regional accrediting group. Then a joint meeting of these committees with the evaluating committee of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals would cover all those schools under the regional accrediting group. The enforcement would be in the hands of the state committee of these accrediting groups or someone delegated by them to do that function. This, however, would not cover the smaller schools that do not belong to the regional accrediting associations.

School principals can help in the enforcement of the nonathletic activity sanctioned list if, when they are requested to enter an activity, they would make sure that the activity has been approved by the evaluating committee.

PROPOSED METHOD OF CONTROLLING NONATHLETIC ACTIVITIES

1: The present committee of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals would continue to work as a screening committee for the present time.

2. Each of the regional accrediting associations would appoint an activities committee which would recommend to their member schools the activities in which they could participate. The committees from the accrediting agencies would convene with the evaluating committee of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals. They would work out criteria rules and regulations for receiving and approving applications for activities on a national level.

3. THE BULLETIN of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals would continue to publish this list in October so that all member schools would be familiar with the sanctioned activities.

4. The state committee of the regional associations would require a report of all activities in which their schools participate. In this manner they could enforce the ruling that their schools enter only those on their sanctioned list.

From experience in the last eight years as a member of the evaluating committee and as one who has served in his own state organization as chairman of the nonathletic activities committee, the speaker believes that nonathletic activities on a national level could be controlled satisfactorily to most schoolmen.

SECOND METHOD OF CONTROLLING NONATHLETIC ACTIVITIES

In discussing this problem with men interested in its solution, there seems to be a second method of control which may be utilized and in which the complete control would rest within the organization of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals.

The executive committee of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals could authorize the employing of one director and as many assistants as they feel would be necessary to study the nonathletic activities proposed and decide on those which they would sanction. Then they would supervise the set-up and be in charge of the management of these activities. The people with experience in the various fields could be utilized to help run these activities. The National Association of Secondary-School Principals would then have no activities on the approved list except those of their own management. In this manner they would correct many of the criticisms now offered regarding selection, judging, and management that are sometimes received at the present time. It might be possible to receive funds for prizes and scholarships from the same organization that put up the funds under the present system. The National Association of Secondary-School Principals at the present time has charge of the National Honor Society awards and is sponsoring a meeting of representatives of the student government each summer. The recommended method would be an extension of functions that are now being done in the Association except that additional help would have to be secured.

Any plan suggested will not meet the desire of all secondary-school administrators since some are not in favor of any activities on the national level, believing that the maximum good can be achieved at the state level. Others believe there should be no restrictions, thus allowing each individual school to determine which activities it will allow its students to enter.

It is believed that a large percentage of our group favor some control which will slow down and limit the number of activities being offered to the schools. From the experience of the evaluating committee, the number will increase and more pressure will be put on the schoolroom in the future unless they get help in controlling school nonathletic activities.

How Can We Control Nonathletic Contests in Our Schools?

W. C. WHALEY

I THINK we will agree that controlling nonathletic activities in the secondary school is still a problem. It is not a new problem because we have always considered student activity correlated with the study of a school curriculum an important part of secondary education. However, since the decade from nineteen hundred twenty to nineteen hundred thirty, when the present movement really began in the high schools, there has been a growing tendency to place more and more emphasis on what we term extracurricular activities at the secondary-school level. Out of these extracurricular activities grow speech contests, choral festivals, band festivals, school newspaper judging, dramatic festivals, student council assemblies, Hi-Y conventions, essay-writing contests, scholarship-earning examinations, competition for awards of all sorts—to mention only a few that teachers and administrators all know so well.

I feel assured that it is not our purpose or desire to destroy extracurricular activity or to rule out conventions, festivals, assemblies, and contests, because they offer opportunities for educational growth that can be obtained in no other way. It seems logical, then, that we should apply to this phase of our school life the same principles we continue to apply in determining our curriculum content. We should keep what we think is best and can find time to use and pay for; the rest we should decide against. We should supervise this program, too, as carefully as we do the curricular program of the school. We should also give most careful attention to supervision of young people away from home when engaged in activity approved by educational authority.

We have now defined the problem. It is our purpose to sift out the best of these activities—the ones that supplement the program of education we now offer and will improve it—to direct the several activities we choose, to get the best results they afford, and, finally, to assure supervision and guidance to the participants wherever the activity occurs. These problems are all very difficult because responsibility has not been fully placed.

COMMITTEE APPOINTED

We began studying this problem in earnest in the West Virginia Association of High-School Principals about nineteen hundred thirty-five. In April, nineteen hundred thirty-eight, I was named as chairman of a committee to study the situation in our state and make a report to the annual meeting in April, nineteen hundred thirty-nine. During the year we contacted as many people as possible and talked with them to gain their views of the nonathletic activity problem as they knew it. Many of these conversations were interesting and helpful. On one occasion I talked with a young man, a Hi-Y sponsor from a neighboring school, who had just returned from the State Hi-Y Con-

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ference. He was very much disturbed about what had happened. In support of his story he showed me a letter directed to him and written by a resident of the host city where the Hi-Y Conference had been held. He explained that he had taken six boys, members of his club, to the Conference. When they arrived, the boys were assigned in pairs, as is the custom, to three separate homes whose owners had offered meals and lodging gratis. All went well in two of the homes. But in the third the residents were hospitable, friendly, and quite wealthy, besides. They met the boys, greeted them warmly, gave them a key to the front door and ten dollars apiece for spending money, and then told them to have a good time. It seems that the boys took the advice literally and proceeded to have a good time in their own way, very much to the dissatisfaction of the resident across the street. This family took the trouble to find out who the boys were. They obtained the name of their sponsor and his school and wrote him the letter. In one expression they told him enough. They wrote: "As a leader of young men you surely could find something better to do." (The language was not good but he got the point.) The story is not the thing, however, that was so revealing. It was what the Hi-Y sponsor said to me. He exclaimed: "Who had any right to ask me to go down there with these boys? What right had the host city to separate these boys from me and from each other? Why should I be blamed for what I cannot control?"

It seems to me that this disturbed sponsor unveiled many of the issues of the program. After all, is not the whole of society involved? By whom and in what manner shall activities be selected or rejected? Who shall decide the amount of time to be devoted to these activities? How much of the time shall be taken from regular school hours, and how much shall fall outside the regular school day? How can adequate supervision be assured to all participants? These questions we kept in mind as we continued our interviews.

We found many instances of lack of supervision, wasted time, intolerable crowding of host cities, and listened to some regrettable stories of lack of supervision. We then contacted the state department of education, and, after some interviews with our high-school supervisor, we were convinced that we all have some responsibility regardless of our place in the school system. But on the state level the High-School Principals' Association should take the lead. We were promptly authorized to do so by our state department of education. Our Committee made its first written report in April, nineteen hundred thirty-nine, listing twelve approved activities that were state-wide in scope. (If there was a national list at that time approved by our National Association, we did not know about it.) We recommended that loss of school time for participation in nonathletic activities be given consideration and that more careful supervision of participants at the site of the assembly be insured. We made some suggestions about the management of meets and requested that no school participate in any state-wide activity not on our approved list. We had no real authority, and our report was given as the recommendations of the non-

athletic Contest Committee. The report of our Committee was very well received and met very little real opposition from our membership. We did meet some opposition from our sponsors of music festivals, who expressed doubt of the right of the Principals' Association to "dictate" their program limitations.

NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION CO-OPERATED

The very same year that our first written report was distributed, Criterion 10 B was added to *The Criteria for Evaluation of Secondary Schools* by our regional accrediting agency, the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. Their statement was good news to our Committee. We quote it: "To the end that all activities of the high school shall contribute most effectively to the educational program, a secondary school which is a member of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools shall not participate in any district, state, inter-state, or regional athletic, music, commercial, speech, or other contest or tournament involving the participation of more than two schools except those approved by the State Committee or by that organization recognized by the State Committee as constituting the highest authority for regulation and control of such activities." (In April, nineteen hundred forty-nine, the number of this criterion was changed to Criterion 4 F and the wording changed somewhat, but the purpose and its meaning remain substantially the same.) We had in this standard, support for our approved list of activities and recognized authority not only from our state department, but from our regional accrediting agency, also. With this encouragement our State Committee, in nineteen hundred forty-three, revised its list of approved activities, our Association changed the name from the nonathletic Contest Committee to the Nonathletic Activity Committee, and extended its authority to include all West Virginia high schools as well as those that were members of the North Central Association. The Committee also suggested to its Association that it be merged with the Athletic Committee; but no action has yet been taken.

Again in nineteen hundred forty-six, the Nonathletic Activity Committee extended its supervision. It published a revised list of approved activities, reorganized the state-wide orchestra and chorus assembly, and made their concert a feature of the annual meeting of the Secondary Principals' Association. In nineteen hundred forty-six, the Committee made a written statement of policy, limiting essay contests both in number and subject matter. It also limited its own responsibility, leaving all activity within a county unit in the hands of the county board of education and the county school administrators. It promised a yearly revision of the list of approved activities.

In nineteen hundred forty-seven, the Nonathletic Activity Committee, in co-operation with the High-School Principals' Association and the officers of the Band Masters' Association, completely reorganized the plan for band festivals within the state. The state was divided into eight regions, each of which

was allowed to sponsor a yearly band festival according to regulations, uniform in some respects throughout the state. They were all required to use the same music. Festivals must be one-day festivals and must be conducted on Saturday. Only those bands rated superior or excellent by competent judges were to be allowed to participate in the state festival. Junior high-school bands were not allowed to enter the state-wide festival by these regulations.

A PERMANENT COMMITTEE PROVIDED

The High School Principals' Association at their annual meeting in nineteen hundred forty-eight, made the Nonathletic Activity Committee a permanent committee of their Association by constitutional amendment. They provided for a committee of three members, each to serve three years. (The first three were elected, however, for one, two, and three-year terms.) One member will thus retire each year and one new member will be elected each year. This was done, of course, to make the work of the committee continuous and to maintain an experienced committee at all times. The amendment provided further for a regional deputy member in each of the eight regions of the state to act as a liaison agent between the separate schools and the Committee, to insure quick action when needed, and to provide a convenient source of advice and information to any school that might need it quickly.

We have enumerated the details of the West Virginia plan for controlling nonathletic activities, not because we think it so good, but because it is a plan actually in operation and one getting some careful attention, as evidenced by its increasing service to the schools it represents. Our plan has the approval of our state department of education and our regional accrediting agency, and is in harmony with the program of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals. We have realized some very satisfying outcomes.

Group VIII—Room 502

CHAIRMAN: *Herbert Adams*, Principal, Senior High School, Ames, Iowa.

INTERROGATORS AND CONSULTANTS:

C. D. Cotterman, Principal, Burnham High School, Sylvania, Ohio.

Ray F. Myers, Principal, Jefferson High School, Council Bluffs, Iowa.

Are There Better Ways of Evaluating, Recording, and

Reporting Pupil Progress in the Junior and Senior High Schools?

LEMUEL R. JOHNSTON

WHEN educators are attempting to make improvements in so many aspects of education, it is natural that much thought and energy are directed toward improving marking and reporting procedures. This is espe-

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cially true at a time when so much effort is being spent on curriculum revision and learning activities. Traditional schemes of marking and reporting seem out of harmony with present-day concepts of education. This is the nub of the problem.

To the question, "Are there better ways of marking and reporting at the junior and senior high-school levels?" I would answer: "There probably are better ways, but, to date, I am unaware of any that can be stated with any degree of positiveness—at least any which are practical."

Wrinkle's ten years of experimentation are not too encouraging. A host of plans which many schools are either now using or are getting ready to introduce have been tried out and discarded by Wrinkle and his colleagues in their search for improved methods. And Wrinkle, in my opinion, has rendered a unique and valuable service to education by his experimentation and study. So inclusive and thorough has been his work that his conclusions bear weight. About his study he says:

Over the next ten years we made almost every mistake a school could make in our efforts to improve our marking and reporting practices. In rapid succession, we developed and discarded innumerable detailed evaluation report forms, checklists and scale-type reports. We juggled symbols—SU, HSU, HML, and others. We accumulated thick files of anecdotal records. We tried informal-letter reports. For a time we abandoned all forms of written reporting and substituted parent-teacher conferences. We constructed elaborate cumulative record forms. We emphasized student self-evaluation. We developed still other detailed report forms. And in every direction we went we came out at the same spot. If it was good, it took too much time; it wasn't practical; it wouldn't work in the public schools. And our job as a research-laboratory school was to work out not only something we could use; it had to be equally useful for Yuma or Yampa or Teaneck or Tacoma.¹

Further on, he states significantly,

You should not expect to turn to the last chapter of this book and find the perfect report form. It won't be there. I have never seen one and I am sure you haven't. I doubt if there is one. For what might be good in one school might not be good in another. Each school has to work out its own forms and practices on the basis of its own objectives, its own philosophy, and its own staff.²

So this business of marking and reporting procedures evidently is not a small or easy undertaking. It may be that the difficulty inheres in the fact that that which is the object for improvement is itself fundamentally unsound. The whole notion of giving marks and reporting them to pupils and parents may be the most vicious practice ever instituted by the educational system. So common has the practice of giving marks become that it is universally accepted as necessary even though many earnest educators feel it to be a constricting influence—nay, an oppressive vise clamped about the throat of true educational effort. The important question to be asked is: "How may our energies best

¹ Wrinkle, William L., *Improving Marking and Reporting Practice*, p. 3.

² *Ibid.*, p. 4.

be employed to promote the growth we seek regardless of whether it applies to marking and reporting practices or to some other phase of education?"

WHY MARKS?

Certainly I know of no piece of research which proves or even strongly advocates definite and positive contributions which marks and report cards make in the educational growth of youth. Exhaustive research by competent psychologists carried on over a long enough period might reveal that the most damaging practice in terms of true educational results is the practice of giving marks. If such were found to be the case, I fear that the removal of this vice would be a major undertaking.

Parents the country over have been educated in a system in which marks have been emphasized. To parents, marks are virtually pay-checks for their efforts as well as those of their children. Marks are the passports from one grade to another, from one subject to the next. They are closely allied to graduation. They determine rank in class. They have a great bearing upon whether one goes to college or is admitted to the college of his choice. They determine high honors, honors, who gets this or that award. All in all, marks play a most important role in the general scholastic scheme.

From time immemorial, marks have been used by parents and teachers to compare one individual with another, to stimulate highly competitive endeavors between pupils. They have been made the basis for all kinds of awards and remuneration by parents. In all probability there are millions in our adult population who suffer from inferiority complexes because, as children, they earned low and failing marks. As adults, these individuals are less effective as persons and citizens.

Parents have been known to suffer because of poor marks received by their children. Other parents have *egos* inflated and status enhanced by the high marks their children earn. Parents with honor-roll children naturally assume that they, themselves, belong to the mentally elite.

The above remarks are made solely to point out that the reason great difficulty is encountered in attempts to improve marking and reporting procedures may be the fact that the practice of giving marks is fundamentally unsound. To date, taking the country as a whole, the only major change which has taken place in marking has been the substitution of letters for percentages. Even this may not be a major improvement, for the letters usually represent a range on a percentage scale. They do, however, recognize the fact, based upon several studies, that no one can mark as accurately as a percentage scale would suggest. Furthermore, the marks in the form of letters make use of the words, excellent, good, average, poor, and failure. This is at least in harmony with ways of evaluating in out-of-school activities.

THE FIVE-POINT SCALE

Since there will doubtless be some scheme of marking for a long time to come, it is in order to comment briefly about the five-point scale represented

by the symbols A, B, C, D, F. The scale affords a teacher an opportunity to make an evaluation based upon a synthesis of all the reactions which a pupil has made in numerous learning situations—at least in those the teacher has observed. In reporting to the pupil and his parents, the teacher is saying that the pupil has been progressing in an excellent, good, or poor manner. There is no effort at some partial, analytical evaluation. The pupil, and usually the parents, know the nature of the learning activities. The growth or development that has actually taken place or the exact nature of learning activities engaged in cannot be made known by any marking scheme. If it were possible to reveal all this, the cost in time and energy would make it impracticable.

What the teacher uses to base his evaluation upon will vary not only with the nature of the undertaking but also with whether or not he marks on the basis of a standard norm, or on a comparison to those in the group, or on the pupil's own ability to achieve. Much is often made of the fact that a person cannot know what a mark stands for because one or a combination of bases may be used. Does it really matter? What the pupil and his parents want to know is how the pupil is getting along in a given grade or subject taught by a given teacher.

Education is concerned with pupil growth. The complete pattern of growth being achieved is not something that can be revealed by any scheme of marking however simple or elaborate. Pupil growth will vary from teacher to teacher and from school to school because the experiences from which pupils learn differ so greatly. Furthermore, it does not follow that, because a teacher knows what he is trying to achieve, the results can be evaluated. What teacher can know what growth has taken place in the realm of attitudes, appreciations, insight, and understanding? A mark in the form of an A or C expresses the teacher's judgment about how well the pupil has done in the undertaking at which the group has been working. When the marks of several teachers are considered, a fair prediction of success beyond high school, particularly in college, can often be given.

People everywhere use these evaluations. The letter arrangement for marks at least has in its favor the fact that the practice is used in every-day life. But this in and of itself is no justification for a marking system. The job of the school is that of helping boys and girls grow into better persons and more effective citizens. Whatever contributes to these goals deserves our fullest support.

Now, since it is not easy to be sure of what is better and since it is not wise to discard one thing before being reasonably certain of another, it would seem that the wisest course to pursue, if marks must be used, would be to keep the scheme of things as simple as possible. The letter arrangement, at least, is about as simple as a system can be. Another argument in favor of the letter system is that the minimum amount of the teacher's time and energy is consumed.

GRADING IS A DIFFICULT TASK

Many of the attempts to improve marking and reporting practices are concerned with marking on qualities desirable for good citizenship and school progress such as dependability, co-operation, self-reliance, initiative, thrift, sportsmanship, school service, self-control, workmanship, courtesy, promptness *et cetera*. Other attempts try to reveal whether or not a pupil meets his responsibilities promptly, begins work promptly, or whether or not he is working up to capacity. These efforts indicate the direction in which changes are being made. Even though we hew to the old line of evaluating the successful accumulation of data, educators are trying to incorporate the concept of growth in a marking system designed largely to evaluate on a factual scale. It seems a little strange to some of us that, in spite of the fact that the letter scale was introduced because teachers could not mark as accurately as the percentage scale suggested, teachers are now being asked to evaluate that which is vastly more difficult and more often than not defies evaluation.

These attempts at improving marking might well be called partial analytical markings or ratings. Frankly, taking the long look ahead, they are in all probability doomed to failure for at least the following reasons:

First: teachers are asked to perform a service beyond their capacity. What teacher in a junior or senior high school can fairly evaluate eleven or more citizenship qualities for a hundred or more students? What teacher can know whether each of a hundred or more students met his responsibilities promptly? What constitutes meeting one's responsibilities promptly? And what about the teacher's responsibility to the pupils? What teacher can determine with any degree of fairness whether or not a pupil is working up to capacity? How will a pupil's capacity be determined? Certainly it involves more than a score on an intelligence test. A pupil's metabolism, the function of his glands, his frustrations, his family relationships, his diet, and many other things affect his capacity at any given time.

Second: it is extremely doubtful if the growth of citizenship qualities or character traits can be promoted by so direct an approach as that of marking. The greatest things in child growth may very well be by-products of engaging in worth-while learning activities. Much harm, in fact, can be done if marking becomes superficial and mechanical on the part of teachers. Pupils may be taught to practice a certain amount of mild pretending (cheating is an ugly word) in order to get a good mark. A distaste for the very qualities being sought can be created by teachers whose evaluations do not reveal a true understanding of the pupil's progress. A pupil can be educated to expect some kind of pay-check for every service rendered.

Third: no partial analytical working scheme, however accurate, can tell the true story. It is a person's behavior or reaction based on the totality of his personality that is important. All parts of a person function as a synthesis in every act.

Fourth: what has been learned about how children grow educationally would seem to suggest less marking, not more. Less concentration on extrinsic motivation rather than on more should be our aim. Modern psychology tends to lead us away from marking altogether rather than to greater emphasis upon it.

Fifth: too much time and energy are consumed in an enterprise which promises so little to the ultimate objectives of education. There is just so much energy and time available, and these should be employed for maximum results.

IS THERE ANY SOLUTION?

The foregoing is enough to suggest why it appears that most of our present attempts to improve marking and reporting practices seem doomed to failure. Some aspects of the attempts to reveal the individual through marks seem a bit absurd. For example, because a pupil "does not work up to capacity" consistently he does not receive an A or a B. But who wants to drive a car at capacity all the time unless the object is to reach the breaking point as soon as possible? What human being wants to work up to capacity all the time? What human being could stand up very long on such a scheme of things? Hospitals already are filled with young people who suffer from nervous and mental disorders. From a study of some report cards, it appears that an objective of a school is to keep its pupils just short of the collapsing point.

Great progress, no doubt, would eventually result if the entire scheme of marking as it is known today were completely abandoned. To obtain the desired results it would be necessary, in the first place, to bring about a complete re-education of parents to the point where they would permit the elimination of marks; in the second place, to bring up a new generation of pupils, beginning in the kindergarten, with no marks and continuing through high school in the same fashion; and, in the third place, ultimately to work with pupils whose parents have gone through school without marks.

It is interesting to note that no marks are given in the extracurricular program. In this area of the curriculum students give of their best. Parents seem to know what benefits their children are receiving from these activities without the use of marks and report cards. Similar parental understanding seems to exist concerning many more classroom activities than formerly.

One suggestion which holds promise is for pupils, under the guidance of the teacher, to set up group and individual goals and from time to time to evaluate how well those goals are being achieved. All of this should be an integral part of teaching and learning activities. Pupils might very well write their own reports for their parents, telling about some of the goals sought and to what extent they have been achieved. They could reveal what still needs to be done. Some pupils might find it necessary to make reports more often than

others. These reports would require the approval of the teacher. In return, there could be a place left for comments from parents. Reporting should be a two-day process. The pupil's behavior outside of school is probably more important than that at school. This suggestion would seem to be practical.

A second suggestion would be that of teachers and school officials having conferences with parents. This is not so practical at the junior and senior high school level because each teacher is involved with so many pupils. However, such practice is now in effect in some schools to a considerable degree. Certain schools mail letters to the home requesting conferences with parents of those pupils whose work is all, or in part, unsatisfactory. Many times these letters report improvement or outstanding achievement. This practice, even on a limited scale, requires the necessary administrative and office personnel.

In conclusion, I am well aware of the fact that most of my thinking has been on the negative side of the problem. But since marks may be a damaging influence in the education of youth, the first objective should certainly be not to go further in the wrong direction. The goal from this point on should be to minimize damaging procedures as much as practical considerations will permit and to endeavor, meanwhile, to find practical ways of giving and receiving reports of the pupil's development both in and out of school. The cost of education is becoming far too high and the demand for the most effective persons and citizens is far too great for us to waste energy and time on procedures which offer little or nothing toward the achievement of the goals we seek. As administrators and teachers become much more competent in directing truly functional learning experiences in terms of the needs of youth and of the society which that youth helps to form, this concern about marking and reporting practices will diminish in importance. The chief consideration should be: are the pupils acquiring those competencies which they need most now and will need when they leave home and school behind?

Are There Better Ways of Evaluating, Recording, and Reporting Pupil Progress in the Junior and Senior High Schools?

WILLIAM A. LIGGITT

PRESENTATION OF ISSUES

A GROUP discussion has been defined as a co-operative effort to arrive at facts or conclusions about a subject. It involves contributions from many individuals and starts only after a careful and open-minded search for

¹ *Make Youth Discussion Conscious*. Columbus, Ohio: The Junior Town Meeting League. 1948. P. 6.

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the facts.¹ Our approach to opening the discussion on the subject: *Are There Better Methods of Evaluating, Recording, and Reporting Pupil Progress* is three-fold:

- I. Firstly, we shall review the facts concerning the purposes, bases, and criticisms of our present methods of evaluating, recording, and reporting pupil progress.
- II. Secondly, we shall consider some fundamental points of view in measurement and evaluation.
- III. Thirdly, we shall suggest some issues for discussion based on the expressed fundamental viewpoints and the review of facts about our present methods of evaluating, recording, and reporting pupil progress.

I. PURPOSES, BASES, AND CRITICISMS OF PRESENT METHODS

The first question that one may logically ask is: What is included in our present system of evaluation, recording, and reporting pupil progress? While there are many departures from general practice, the conventional pattern appears chiefly as an evaluation of pupil achievement in subject matter based on teachers' marks with the recordings of teachers' marks on individual permanent record cards and report cards. Teachers' marks are shown usually as percentages or on a scale that represents several levels of achievement. The traditional permanent record card and the report card generally show, in addition to teachers' marks, some estimate of the pupil's conduct and effort. Parents are asked at regular intervals to examine the pupil's report card and are invited to confer with the school about the meaning of the report.

A. Purpose and Bases for Evaluating Pupil Progress

Let us now consider briefly the purposes and bases for evaluating pupil progress. Remmers and Gage² point out that the chief purpose of evaluation is "to furnish data for guidance that will enable the student to make the best fit possible with education and life." The same authors observe that in the course of satisfying the need for data on which to base the guidance of students, evidence is acquired that may serve many other purposes. These purposes include:³

1. To maintain standards
2. To select students
3. To motivate learning
4. To guide teaching
5. To furnish instruction
6. To appraise teachers, teaching methods, books, and curriculum content.

Lists of purposes compiled by Douglass and Mills⁴ and Yeager⁵ are somewhat similar but use different terminology. All of us recognize the stand-

² Remmers, Hermann H., and Gage, N. L. *Educational Measurement and Evaluation*. New York: Harper and Brothers. 1943. P. 3.

³ *Ibid.*, p. 5.

⁴ Douglass, Harl R., and Mills, Hubert H. *Teaching in High School*. New York: The Ronald Press Company. 1948. P. 411.

⁵ Yeager, William A. *Administration and the Pupil*. New York: Harper and Brothers. 1949. P. 311.

ard purposes of evaluation, but we may not agree on the propriety of these purposes for evaluation of secondary-school students.

The maintenance of standards has been a historical concern of educators. Students must make a passing grade in certain required subjects or they cannot be graduated from high school. In many high schools, probably in your own school, there are pupils repeating subjects for the second and third time in order that graduation requirements will be fulfilled. Teachers use the marking system to maintain standards in their own subjects. Some instructors take particular pride in the fact that very few high grades are given to students. These same instructors do not consider a large number of failures as a major problem but simply regret that so many students fall below the standards of the course.

The utilization of an evaluation system permits the school to select students who are eligible to take advanced courses, to be promoted into an advanced grade or to identify students who show promise of succeeding in college. Each six weeks or each month, certain groups of students are chosen for an honor roll based on teacher evaluation of subject-matter achievement. Sometimes the selection function works in negative fashion by prohibiting students who are not doing passing work from participating in extracurricular activities such as clubs, plays, and athletics.

The motivation of learning appears as a traditional purpose of evaluating the progress of school children. Invariably, the stock reply given to anyone who thinks that the grading system should be changed is: The student must be given a grade or he will not do any work. In conferences with failing pupils, teachers and principals alike stress the values to be gained by making a higher grade on the report card. Parents encourage their children to higher achievement by offering monetary rewards and freedom from household chores.

Evaluations can be used to guide teaching when they furnish diagnoses of causes of pupil failure. A regular report of student progress may mark a beginning point for a diagnostic testing program that will tell the teacher and the pupil the causes of low achievement. However, without the use of diagnostic tests and a careful analysis of teacher-made classroom tests, one of two conclusions usually results from teacher-parent-pupil conferences over pupil failure:

1. The student is not trying his utmost to do satisfactory work, or
2. The student is limited by natural ability in his capacity to do passing work in that particular subject.

Factors such as the efficiency of teaching methods, meaning and interpretation of evaluation reports, and worth-whileness of curricula material and instructional objectives are rarely injected into these conferences by the parent or the educator. Sometimes the school administrator is forced into a con-

sideration of some of these factors where it is obvious that the student is limited by his natural ability to acquire academic knowledge. In some cases, the student who is failing forces the issue by forthrightly demanding: What good will this course do me when I want to become a bus driver, an auto mechanic, or a clerk in the local department store?

Courses in pedagogy stress the value of tests as a means of furnishing instruction. Pupils learn by taking tests and by correcting tests. By participating in measuring results of instruction, the recipients of the instruction learn how to make a self-appraisal of their progress and become extremely interested in the results. Remmers and Gage⁶ urge however, the tests and measurements should not "count," *i.e.*; affecting grades when they are used for instructional purposes. By not recording the scores, the pupils' attitude toward his failures and errors is shifted from one of "there is no use learning the answers to these flunked questions" to an attitude which regrets the inadequacy as a real gap in his own personal knowledge.

Educational measurement and evaluation may be used to appraise teachers, teaching methods, books, and curriculum content. This purpose is easily understood but very difficult to apply. As pointed out before, educators tend to ignore the implications that a large number of pupil failures may mean unsatisfactory teachers and teaching methods or a curriculum that is poorly suited to the needs of the school population. The chief obstacle in using evaluations of pupil progress to measure the efficiency of methods and curriculum is the difficulty of setting up controlled scientific experiments, with significant variables held constant and with statistical tests of significance applied to the results.⁷ Remmers and Gage⁸ summarize the purposes of evaluation and measurement by concluding that all the purposes of evaluation should be directed toward the guiding pupils to make wise choices in education and in their lives.

If the major purpose of evaluation is to furnish data for guidance in helping each pupil to realize his fullest potentialities, the basis for the evaluation must be just as broad in scope. Yeager⁹ brings out the fact that a true evaluation plan contemplates measures of total development, physical, mental, moral, social, emotional and spiritual, and that, unfortunately, many evaluative procedures have been concerned too largely with mental testing and achievement to the exclusion, or at least, to the neglect of tests of physical growth, social development, and moral advancement.

B. *Criticisms of Present Methods of Evaluating, Recording, and Reporting Pupil Progress*

Criticisms of present methods of evaluation centers about the purposes

⁶ Remmers and Gage. *op. cit.*, p. 11.

⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 12.

⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 12.

⁹ Yeager. *op. cit.*, p. 312.

and bases of measurement. The critics do not deny the purposes, but they do take issue with the manner in which the purposes have been upheld by the traditional system of evaluating and reporting pupil progress. Some of these criticisms briefly stated are:

1. The maintenance of standards has been employed to uphold traditional curricula and traditional teaching methods in spite of individual differences and the changing needs of the schools' population.¹⁰
2. Present methods of grading and reporting do not motivate true learning but rather motivate the acquisition of a satisfactory number of credits for graduation.¹¹

Morrison¹² emphasizes this situation by telling of the reaction of certain students to a college course in English Literature. The young man had done his work in the course very well, indeed, and was congratulated by an older friend who expressed the expectation that the course in question would shape the reading of a lifetime. "Well," rejoined the youth, "it is over with anyway. I have the credit, and thank Heaven, I shall never have it to do again." Other criticisms of purposes include the following:

3. The diagnostic values of evaluation methods have been largely overlooked. In fact, without additional tests and careful analysis of the results of present tests, teachers and principals are not prepared to suggest to pupils and parents the causes of failure.
4. The selection of pupils for college and candidates for advance degrees has placed too much emphasis on subject-matter mastery to the detriment of other educational objectives.

In connection with the bases for present methods of evaluation, recording, and reporting student progress, the critics have been more severe. First, among the criticisms is the complaint that the bases for measurement are much too narrow in scope. Educators claim concern for the "whole child" and then provide a system that measures only what the child knows about certain academic subjects. Douglass and Mills¹³ observe:

That a serious limitation of the applications of objective measurement in the last few decades has been the use of tests which place a disproportional emphasis upon detailed information or minute subject-matter skills.

The measurement of subject-matter achievement has been accomplished chiefly through teachers' marks. It is perhaps on this technique of measurement that most of the criticism has fallen.

The best single reference on teachers' marks is William L. Wrinkle's¹⁴ *Improving Marking and Reporting Practices*. It is essentially a report of ten

¹⁰ Remmers and Gage, *op. cit.*, p. 6.

¹¹ Morrison, Henry C. *The Practice of Teaching in the Secondary School*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1926. P. 69.

¹² *Ibid.*, p. 69.

¹³ Douglass and Mills, *op. cit.*, p. 436.

¹⁴ Wrinkle, William L. *Improving Marking and Reporting Practices in Elementary and Secondary Schools*. New York: Rinehart and Company, 1947.

years' experimentation in marking systems that was carried on in the Secondary School of the Campus Research Laboratory Schools of Colorado State College of Education. The report is replete with original data and material taken from one hundred thirteen selected references on marking and reporting practices. In the process of improving the marking and reporting practices, Wrinkle¹⁵ found six fallacies in the use of the conventional A B C D F marks. These fallacies are listed below:

1. Anyone can tell what a single A B C D F mark means.
2. A student can achieve any mark he wishes—if he is willing to make the effort.
3. The student's success in his after-school life compares favorably with his success in school.
4. The student's mark is comparable to the worker's pay check.
5. The competitive marking system provides a worth-while and justifiable introduction to competitive adult life.
6. School marks can be used as a means to an end without their becoming thought of by students as ends in themselves.

The unreliability of teachers' marks is not as startling now as it was in 1912 when Starch and Elliott¹⁶ first reported that "the same paper in geometry was graded by 115 teachers of high-school mathematics with marks ranging from twenty-eight to about ninety per cent." Later studies have been reported where teachers within the the same school show almost as marked differences in their grading as to do teachers from different schools. Wrinkle¹⁷ explains that that the unreliability of marks stems partly from two factors:

1. A mark may represent an almost unlimited number of variable factors.
2. A mark is often based on class achievement and, therefore, the basis changes with the composition of the class.

I suppose each of the six fallacious beliefs in the A B C D F marking system pointed out by Wrinkle have at one time or another been supported wholeheartedly by members of the audience as justification of the present system of marking and reporting pupil progress. They should certainly not go unchallenged in the discussion that follows. Whether challenged or not, it is becoming clear that the traditional methods of evaluating, reporting, and recording student progress must be modified.

II. POINTS OF VIEW IN MEASUREMENT AND EVALUATION

The modification of standard patterns of marking and reporting depend to a large extent on the attitude of administrators and teachers toward basic generalizations and principles in marking and reporting. Wrinkle, in beginning his experimental program, set forth some seventy points of view and

¹⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 44.

¹⁶ Starch, Daniel, and Elliott, E. C. "Reliability of the Grading of High School Work in English" *School Review* 1912. Quoted in Yeager. *op. cit.*, p. 314.

¹⁷ Wrinkle. *op. cit.*, p. 36 ff.

asked administrators, teachers, and graduate students in education to mark agree or disagree with respect to each item. All of the items cannot be reproduced here. However, there are certain fundamental points of view that should be expressed before a discussion begins on the topic. These points of view are summarized briefly in a series of statements.¹⁸

1. Education is the modification of behavior. If a learning experience does not result in a modification of the way its learner behaves, he has not learned anything of real value.
2. Objectives of education should be stated in terms of desired behavior outcomes—What the learner should do, rather than what the learner should know.
3. Evaluation and report of student progress should be based on his achievement of the objectives of education stated in terms of behavior outcomes.
4. Evaluation should be competitively based on a comparison of the student with a theoretically normal student of similar age and school level.
5. A single letter, grade, or symbol is not an adequate index to students achievement unless the achievement evaluated represents a single outcome.
6. Methods of evaluation and reporting should encourage students to think of education as desirable changes in behavior rather than something possessed by the student after the completion of so many required credits.
7. The elimination of school marks is desirable in part because it would compel teachers to depend more on intrinsic motivation, worth-while materials and sound methods of instruction.
8. A program for evaluation and measurement should provide for the co-operative efforts of parents and students in developing and participating in the evaluating process.
9. Methods of evaluation and reporting should be based on multiple standards rather than a single standard of achievement.
10. Better methods of evaluating, recording, and reporting pupil progress depends to a large extent on changes in curricula and teaching methods based on practical application of modern educational objectives.

These statements were consolidated from Wrinkle's list of seventy viewpoints because they are particularly useful in beginning the presentation of issues involved in improving the conventional pattern of marking and reporting. A belief in these fundamental concepts will lead the individual sharply to criticize the present methods of evaluating, recording, and reporting and perhaps stimulate the development of improved methods based on an awareness of what learning is and how it occurs. If the teacher or administrator rejects or modifies the points of view relating to marking and grading as expressed by Wrinkle, then, the present methods of grading will be accepted as adequate or as satisfactory after minor changes.

III. PRESENTATIONS OF ISSUES

We have tried in our opening remarks this afternoon to provide a practical basis for a discussion of issues evolving from our present methods of evaluating, recording, and reporting pupil progress. If no one seriously questions the description of current methods, we may now begin to summar-

¹⁸ Ibid., p. 10 ff.

ize for the consideration of the group some issues on the topic: "Are There Better Ways of Evaluating, Recording, and Reporting Pupil Progress in the Junior and Senior High Schools?" The plan of procedure has been to set forth a single question or statement containing the issue followed by a short synopsis of material on both sides of the issue.

ISSUE ONE: *What Are the Relative Values or Purposes of Evaluation?*

1. The chief purpose of measurement and evaluation is to provide the student with information about his weaknesses and strong points in order that he may know where and how to proceed with his studies. The use of evaluation methods to maintain standards, select students, and motivate learning completely overshadows the real purpose for evaluating and reporting. In common parlance, no school pupil really cares what is learned so long as the symbolic grade is high enough to place him in a selected group and perhaps gain for him a word of praise from his teacher or his family.

2. OR—the maintenance of standards, selection of students, and the motivation learning are legitimate purposes of a system of measurement and evaluation. If these functions are eliminated, the majority of students would cease to study and it would be impossible to maintain discipline.

ISSUE TWO: *Is the End Product of Learning Behavior or Knowledge?*

1. If education is the modification of behavior, the evaluation of progress should be based primarily on how the learner behaves rather than on what he knows. In this case, the measurement of behavior is not necessarily limited to motor skills or physical actions of the learner. For example, Anderson, Forsyth, and Morse¹⁹ point out that there are three broad fields which are directly related to the development of understanding in the social studies, namely:

- a. Acquiring functional information
- b. Analyzing social problems
- c. Practicing desirable social relationships

According to the authors, test materials may be used to measure understanding in these three fields if the test items require the student to reorganize and apply the facts and skills that he has acquired as a result of teaching and learning. The several groups of authors in *The Measurement of Understanding*²⁰ make the practical suggestion that worth-while tests may be developed by first stating the objectives of the particular subject field and then preparing test items to measure growth toward those objectives. In addition to careful use of conventional tests, the authors²¹ suggest twenty-one other methods for measuring the understandings of pupils. Some of these methods include: recorded observations of pupil attitudes, records showing extent and

¹⁹ National Society for the Study of Education. *The Measurement of Understanding*. Part I. Chicago: University of Chicago Press. 1946. Chapter V.

²⁰ *Ibid.*, Chapter V. ff.

²¹ *Ibid.*, Chapter IV. also summarized in Douglass and Mills. *op. cit.*, p. 442.

choice of readings and music listenings, checklists of interests and activities, diaries, samples of creative work, examination of laboratory and records, and having students make explanations, describe operations, and demonstrate principles in class and on paper.

All of the activities mentioned in *The Measurement of Understanding* involve in some degree the measurement of student behavior based on his understanding rather than the measurement of student knowledge of facts. Current practices attempt to report progress in the acquisition of textbook knowledge by the use of teachers' marks.

In spite of the fact that academic grades are generally limited to the narrow base of achievement in subject matter, research indicates that ordinary teachers' marks are statistically unreliable and not subject to a universal interpretation. In short, no one knows but the teacher the meaning of the mark and even he may forget the basis for judgment. Thus the problem of explaining marks to parents becomes as difficult as the problem in that familiar story told about the poet Robert Browning. A reader once asked Browning to interpret one of his more difficult lines. After several minutes of concentrated study of the passage, Browning answered the reader by saying: "When I first wrote that only God and Robert Browning knew what it meant. Now only God knows."

2. OR—The evaluation of progress should be based on what the learner knows rather than what he does, since knowledge may be more objectively measured than behavior.

ISSUE THREE: *What Shall Be The Basis for Comparison of Student's Progress?*

1. The evaluation of student progress may best be made on a comparison of the student's progress in all phases of development to progress made by a normal pupil of same age and school level. On this point, teachers, parents, and students should understand clearly the basis for comparisons of progress. If the teacher keeps in mind the comparisons of abilities and traits in which the individual students can improve and encourage students to focus their attention on the desired outcomes through self-evaluation, this basis of comparison may prove useful in guiding and directing the learning of the students.

2. OR—There are three alternatives to the proposed basis for measurement. Comparison for grading purposes may be made in terms of an absolute standard, group level of ability, or on an individual basis.

ISSUE FOUR: *How Closely Related Should Educational Objectives Be To Evaluation Procedures?*

1. A closer relationship must exist between the statement of educational objectives and the evaluating and reporting of pupil progress. Criticism of current practices brings out the fact that educational objectives are stated in broad general terms and no real effort is being made to determine the progress

of the student in relation to the school's objectives. Students earn passing grades but these are no guarantee that the real aims of education have been achieved.

2. OR—Educational objectives cannot be stated in terms as specific as subject-matter objectives. Therefore, evaluation procedures must continue to rely mainly on achievement of subject-matter objectives.

ISSUE FIVE: *What Part Should the Student and Parent Play in Evaluating Pupil Progress?*

1. Modern methods of evaluation require systematic observation of pupil actions in a variety of situations. The teacher may only report on the pupil as he appears in school. The co-operation of the parent in observing and reporting to the school his child's actions in the community and in the home is a basic and indispensable factor in helping the school to determine the real educational progress of that pupil.

2. OR—The job of the teacher is to mark the progress of the student in the acquisition of subject-matter facts and report the progress to the parent. The parent may co-operate with the school by insisting that the pupil attend regularly and perform a certain amount of home study. The pupil's actions outside the school is no reflection on the efficiency of the school's program.

Many administrators and teachers have recognized the shortcomings of the traditional marking and reporting patterns and have planned and are planning changes in present methods. All of us who planned changes have been brought face to face with these five issues and many more that cannot be mentioned because of space limitations. We have the opportunity this afternoon to discuss co-operatively the issues involved in reporting pupil progress.

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Group IX—Room 206

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How Can We Solve the Problems of Administration in the Small High School?

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THE most explosive thing in the world is not the atomic bomb, and it will not be the H-bomb. The most explosive thing in the world—because it is the most dynamic—always has been, is, and doubtless always will

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be the human personality. We are in the aftermath of the second world war. But the most explosive thing in that was was not the bomb that fell on Hiroshima, nor the one that fell on Nagasaki; it was some personality—that of Mussolini, or Churchill, or Stalin, or Roosevelt, or Patton, or Eisenhower, or MacArthur, or someone else.

America needs the talent of *all* of her people. America in the future will need desperately the fully developed personalities and the fully-developed talents of all of her young people today. The future of our country and, to a large extent, the future of the entire world in the next few generations will depend upon the nature of the explosiveness of the personalities who are in our high schools today.

No inconsiderable number of these young people are in the small high schools. That is one of the reasons there is particular concern to see that the administrative problems of the small high school are solved.

About 16 per cent of all high schools in this country enroll less than fifty pupils annually; about 40 per cent enroll less than one hundred pupils; while approximately 64 per cent enroll less than two hundred, and more than 80 per cent of the high schools of America enroll less than four hundred pupils each year. Translated into numbers of pupils, this means that about 1,301,095 pupils are annually enrolled in schools whose pupil population is less than four hundred.

The implication is not intended that a "small" high school is to be defined as a school enrolling less than four hundred pupils. There is no way of determining precisely, in terms of numbers, what a small high is. For the purposes of this discussion, however, a small high school may be considered to be any high school that is impoverished by lack of financial support; by a narrow, restricted, and an inadequate program of studies; by insufficient teaching personnel; by an inadequate noncertificated staff and restricted administrative personnel, whenever and wherever any one of these factors is the result of a small pupil population.

The solving of the administrative problems of the small high school requires a long, hard pull over a long, rough road toward the objectives of adequate educational programs and effective educational services in these schools. The administrative changes that are necessary to give boys and girls attending the small high schools educational opportunities equal to those enjoyed by boys and girls in the larger and more adequately supported high schools, will not be easily accomplished. This is true for several reasons, not the least of which is the fact that the small high schools have a proud history, perhaps narrow and restricted, but conditioned by geography, achievements, political subdivisions of the state, traditions, and local *mores* and culture. The hold that these have on the people will be difficult to dislodge or replace. Nevertheless, this is the task confronting those working with the small high schools

and those interested in them. The administrative problems of the small high schools must be solved so that this great segment of American life, the small high schools, may give expression to their common faith that they will not only help to build better local communities but also better states, a better nation, and a more peaceful world through the boys and girls who enter their doors.

The first step in solving the administrative problems is to identify clearly and carefully examine them in terms of debits and credits. When these problems have been identified, reviewed, and assessed, the axe must be laid to the root of the evil.

There are, of course, many administrative problems encountered in the small high school; but among them there are eight major ones, and it is these which will be considered here. These are the more stubborn and restrictive administrative problems, and include (1) small and often impoverished school districts; (2) local pride, sentiment, and traditions; (3) lack of proper and adequate financial support; (4) meager and frequently traditional, threadbare curricular offerings; (5) lack of adequate educational services; (6) personnel problems such as rapid turnover, poorly prepared and often inexperienced teachers and administrators, and, as often as not, little or no clerical help; (7) poor, inadequate school plants; and (8) lack of sufficient expert supervisory services, particularly at the administrative level. These vital administrative problems will be considered in sequence, and suggestions for their solution will be offered as a final summary of their implications.

1. SMALL SCHOOL DISTRICTS

The history of school districts in America reaches back about three centuries. During the period of Colonial America and the development of the West, local school districts were formed to meet the immediate needs of the community for the education of their boys and girls. Doubtless it can be said with positive assurance that in the past three small school districts often served the local communities well. Their achievements and accomplishments are records of the pride, the sentiment, and the traditions which make it so hard to carry forward a program of school district reorganization. Nevertheless, it is one of the facts of contemporary educational life that, generally speaking, the small secondary-school district cannot meet its obligations in the second half of the twentieth century. The small school district is hampered, hamstrung, and deterred by so many factors that it cannot secure well-trained, experienced, professional personnel. It cannot retain its personnel. It cannot provide the educational services nor the educational programs necessary to meet the educational needs of boys and girls or of the community.

During the past decade particularly, there has been a nation-wide movement toward school district reorganization. The success of this movement has been more notable in some states than in others, but, as a whole, its

success has not been conspicuous. Certainly one of the foremost administrative problems of the small high school is the small and inadequate school district. This is perhaps the first problem that should receive the attention of laymen and professionals alike, if the educational opportunities of those who attend the small high schools are to be greatly improved. A small school district is here considered to be any school district whose financial structure prevents it from enjoying an adequate high-school plant, a competent program of studies to satisfy the needs not only of the boys and girls but also of the community at large, and a thorough program of educational services including curriculum development, guidance, health services, attendance services, transportation, libraries, and supervision. The task is not an easy one. But until we have in this country a program of district reorganization which will make possible these services for all secondary schools, a great segment of the population, and millions of boys and girls, are being sold short educationally.

2. LOCAL PRIDE, SENTIMENT, AND TRADITIONS

As previously stated, there are usually local pride, sentiment, and traditions in the small school district, and these are tied in deeply with the small high school. Its achievements and its contributions of the past are ever present and very dear to a great number of citizens, many of whom attended the school, received their education on the secondary level there, and who are proud—often justly so—of their lives and achievements and contributions to society. They frequently look upon the school which they attended and the program which they experienced as those which they want for their children. In a way, this may be natural; but it is certain evidence that a stronger and much broader program of adult education is needed throughout the land. It is practically self-evident that the educational program of the first half of the twentieth century does not fit the requirements nor meet the needs of the second half of this century. The educational program must be streamlined, modernized, strengthened, and broadened if it is to serve to the fullest extent initial demands of citizens who live in a society characterized by radar, jet propulsion, television, industrialization, cold wars, and political and social confusion if not frustration.

Administrators and teachers and enlightened laymen must accept the responsibility for carrying the message of hope and the promise of a better educational program and increased and improved educational opportunities to all of the residents of the districts supporting small high schools. This is their mutual obligation to society, to the nation, and to those boys and girls attending high schools which are not providing adequately for their education or welfare.

3. LACK OF PROPER AND ADEQUATE FINANCIAL SUPPORT

Another administrative problem that has a strong stranglehold on the small high school is the lack of proper and adequate financial support. Obviously,

to provide an adequate, dynamic educational program and educational services under a competent and well-qualified professional staff in a school plant that is sufficient as a high school, costs more money per pupil in a district that has only relatively few pupils to attend the high school than it does in one that has a much larger pupil population. On the market today, one can buy a good new automobile for about \$2000 because Ford, General Motors, Chrysler, and others manufacture great numbers of these cars. If their production were reduced by 75 per cent or more, the cost of a car would skyrocket to astronomical figures. The same principles work in educational administration. This problem of financial support for the small high school must be whipped. Members of state legislatures, members of governing boards, and lay population—all must be brought to realize that the small high-school district is expensive and that it either must be enlarged so as to become a less expensive unit, or special provisions must be made for adequately financing it.

It is, of course, obvious that no educator would advocate the abolition or eradication of all small school districts. Some of them are made necessary by geography; others are made necessary by physical forces beyond anyone's control. But the boys and girls who attend these small schools are entitled to the best educational program and the best educational services in the best educational plants under the best trained professional staff that experience and aspiration can combine to provide. If those responsible for education in a given state find, after carrying out a program of school district reorganization, that they still have some small and impoverished school districts, it is their further responsibility to see that adequate financial support of these remaining small districts, over and above what is done for other districts in the state, is made available in terms of their needs.

4. THE RESTRICTED CURRICULUM

Within the past few days, visits to a number of high schools in six or seven states, each school enrolling at the time less than two hundred pupils, have indicated that the program of studies observed was quite traditional and not greatly different from the high-school programs of fifty or more years ago. They were not meeting the needs of the pupils and bore little if any relation to the educational needs of the communities. They were programs pulled out of a past and given in the present. These anachronistic curricula were totally unadapted and unadaptable to either contemporary educational requirements or an understanding of the social, scientific, and cultural advancements which should prepare the boys and girls who attend these schools for successful adult living.

The modern secondary-school curriculum must prepare young people to live happily and effectively. It must not only give adequate training in the fundamental and basic skills; it must also give usable knowledge in terms

of citizenship, vocational training, family life and marriage, the scientific attitude toward the developments of modern civilization, consumer education, and leisure-time activities. The program of studies must initiate and induct into the ways of democracy all boys and girls, and give them the will and the desire, as well as the ability, to contribute liberally to our democratic society. It will be of little use to solve other administrative problems of the small high school and leave the major problem of curricula unsolved. This problem challenges the very best efforts of teachers, administrators, and the supporting public alike. It is perhaps the one problem above all others which will demand the best educational leadership and the most patience to solve.

5. LACK OF PROPER AND ADEQUATE EDUCATIONAL SERVICES

Closely related to the improvement and enriching of the program of studies in the small high school is the problem presented by the lack of proper and adequate educational services. Guidance is as much a part of the services of a high school today as is the teaching of a class on any subject. Guidance is used only to illustrate the importance, significance, and the kinds of services that are needed in the high school to give youth the training that is necessary if the personalities of boys and girls, as well as their abilities and talents, are to be fully developed. Other services of equal importance to both pupils and society are a continuous program of curricular improvement and development, health services, library services, modern teaching aids such as audio-visual, laboratories, experimental plots, shops, and transportation. Usually, these are well entrenched and adequately supported, morally and financially, in the larger high schools; but all too often they are entirely missing or provided only a meager basis in the smaller high schools. This is another challenge that must be met forthrightly.

6. PERSONNEL

President Garfield's often-quoted observation, that his idea of a good school was Mark Hopkins on one end of a log and a boy on the other, points up exceedingly well the supreme importance of personnel in public education. States, governing boards, and society in general have found, over a long period of time, that the welfare of boys and girls is enhanced and better schools are made available when competent teaching and administrative personnel are attracted to and continued in service over relatively long periods. Evidence of these facts is found in the tenure laws of the several states, the administrative codes of numerous school systems, certification standards of state departments of education, and salary schedules. It is unfortunate that these factors do not operate to the same extent in the small high schools as they do in the larger districts. As a natural result, the teaching and administrative personnel of the small high school are frequently ill prepared, with a minimum of professional experience or even sometimes none. Moreover, to make matters worse, these teachers and administrators continue to serve a given school

or community but a very short time. Again, it is common practice in small high schools for the teaching personnel and the administrators to do a great part, if not all, of the clerical work. The end result is that the small high school in America, by and large, is tremendously handicapped by personnel problems.

Some students of small high schools have concluded that this is the most serious problem facing the small high school and the one that must be solved first. Certainly, it constitutes a marked need, regardless of the position in which it may be ranked. The goal of the small high school should be competent, well-trained personnel, and sufficient teaching and administrative staffs provided with adequate clerical help. If this is to be realized the small high school must establish and maintain salary schedules that will attract and retain competent teachers and administrators.

While increased salary schedules and tenure provisions for the small high schools are probably at the core of the solution of the personnel problem in these schools, it is readily admitted that there are other factors which must receive consideration and which must be remedied if the small high schools are to solve their personnel problems with any degree of finality. Among these are community relations and housing for teachers and administrators. These challenge the administrative leadership and the best efforts of governing boards, but they also demand community interest and action.

7. INADEQUATE SCHOOL PLANTS

The school plant is the home of pupils and teachers for a goodly portion of the day and, in the course of the high-school career of a given pupil, a goodly portion of his life. The school plant conditions the environment that shapes and gives direction to his attitudes, habits, and way of life. It makes possible the effective giving of a good educational program; or it hampers, inhibits, and restricts it. Throughout the United States the importance and the significance of a school plant in its relation to the education of boys and girls is recognized and given a high place in civic, community, and architectural planning. But as yet, this beneficent influence has lagged far behind in the districts maintaining small high schools. The plants of the small high schools are all too frequently incapable of carrying a modern, effective educational program, and are not designed to serve the needs of pupils, teachers, or communities. The modern secondary plant, whether large or small, should contain the following features: secondary classrooms designed in terms of subjects taught; auditorium and stage; school library, indoor physical education facilities and outdoor recreation and play areas; food service facilities; physical and life science facilities; arts and crafts studios; vocational education facilities, including prevocational facilities for the industrial and practical arts; area for homemaking; facilities for administration of district and school; service and work rooms for teachers; service and work rooms for student

activities; health services; storage facilities. The school plant must be flexible in terms of progress, such as audio-visual teaching aids, radio, and television; and it must be adaptable to community use.

It will be recognized that many, if not all, of the problems of the small high schools which have been enumerated in this brief paper are interrelated. To illustrate, lack of proper and adequate financial support is part and parcel of poor and inadequate school plants. Thus, it is imperative that governing boards and administrators put first things first, and give most careful consideration to the distribution of funds available in order that money spent will be the best and wisest investment at the time in boys and girls and better education.

8. LACK OF EXPERT SUPERVISORY SERVICES

The purpose of supervision is to help those persons supervised to do a better job. Supervision has proved its value a thousand times on numerous fronts. Large school districts in city systems enjoy and benefit by a generous allotment of expert supervision. But size alone is not a determining factor in point of need. In fact, if in any circumstances it could be considered in this light, the need for expert supervision would likely increase in proportion as district size decreased. This would be true because, in general, teachers and administrators in the small high schools are frequently ill prepared professionally and lacking in experience.

This problem should be given consideration by county and state departments of education. In the main, it is their responsibility, and the small high schools should look to these sources for relief. It has been demonstrated frequently enough to be accepted as proof that a relatively small expenditure of money by county or state departments of education for the employment of consultants and part-time supervisory personnel who work exclusively in small high schools, can lift the level of education in these schools in an amazingly short time. The observable and definable results are higher salary schedules for teachers and administrators; less frequent turnover of teaching personnel; longer tenure for administrators; improved teacher-pupil relationships; greater community interest in public education; the emergence of lay leadership; increased financial support, and improved techniques in teacher selection.

HOW TO MEET THESE NEEDS

The administrative problems identified and assessed in the foregoing statements are well known. The purpose in reviewing them has been to crystallize the specific needs which the small high schools must meet; the major challenges, if you will, to the small high-school administrator. How can these needs, these challenges, be met? How can school district reorganization be accomplished most effectively? How can local pride, sentiment, and traditions be adapted to a forward-looking, constantly developing and im-

proving program of studies? How can appropriations for educational services be secured from thrift-minded state legislatures? How, in short, can solutions to the identified administrative problems be secured?

Walter D. Cocking, in the February, 1950, issue of *The School Executive*, says: "When a community builds a school plant it is making an investment. It is gambling that the community will have a future; and that it will be a better future because of the new plant. It is giving expression to its faith that this plant will not only help to build a better local community but also a better world." This is even more true when the people of a community vote taxes upon themselves to pay for the schools and send their children to those schools. But the important thing to remember is that citizens of any community must be apprised of the facts before they will act. It is a relative abstraction merely to point out that those most interested in the schools and in education are the people themselves. The administrator of the small high school must release the explosiveness within the community personality which result in a united attack upon those problems whose solutions, sought separately, are improbable of achievement.

So, in order to reduce the administrative problems of the small high schools, the most promising method is to take those problems to the people and to encourage and give leadership on a continuing basis to lay participation in the making of educational policy. The people want better schools; the people want better educational programs for their boys and girls. And, when they understand the needs of the schools and are convinced that the welfare of their children and of their communities will be greatly benefited by concerted action, the people will lend their support wholeheartedly to the attainment of what may, without leadership, be thought of merely as abstract goals. Once the people understand the problems and are aroused, better schools will follow. Each small high school should have a citizens' committee on public education; and it is the duty of the administration of the schools to see to it that the citizen's committee has access to all the facts, and to endorse, encourage, and co-operate with it.

Within the schools there are certainly some things that may be done to solve the problems which confront them. Several problems of the small high schools could be solved quite successfully if, through democratic procedures, the schools' affairs were conducted democratically, particularly as these relate to policy making and administration. All schools should make the fullest and highest possible use of the human resources at their command. The human personality and the minds of the teachers, as well as their energies, should not be confined to classroom teaching. Ways and means must be found for teachers to play an important role in policy making, in the area of public relations and school-community relationships. And within the school

itself the teaching personnel may be brought to bear to improve internal administrative problems and so stimulate interest in faculty participation.

Recently, the Barstow Union High School of Barstow, California, organized an advisory committee composed of teachers and students, whose purposes were (1) to demonstrate the advantages of faculty participation in the administration of the small high school; (2) to give the faculty the opportunity of sharing in the organization and responsibility of the administration; (3) to give representative students an opportunity to participate in the administration of the school that they might acquire a better understanding of the problems and philosophy of the school and so disseminate such understanding throughout the student body. Among the problems jointly considered by the advisory committee were those pertaining to discipline cases, especially where public relations are concerned; scholastic and athletic standards; assemblies and student activities; counseling; teacher loads; report cards, unsatisfactory notices, grades; hall conduct and assembly conduct. Results of the committee's consideration of these problems have been encouraging, for through co-operative thinking there has developed a mutual understanding of the school's philosophy and a mutual realization of the fact that problems of administration and public relations belong to the entire school organization and are not limited to the administration. With this understanding and realization has come a strengthening of faculty-administration morale, with a resultant smoothing of the way for concerted attack upon the more difficult administrative problems of this small high school.

Partial solutions to the administrative problems of the small high school should be sought by administrators and governing boards in such matters as better methods of teacher selection, tenure policies, improved and increased salary schedules, adequate teaching facilities, district-supplied housing for teachers, and improved social relations within the community for the teaching personnel. It is hardly possible to tell how to bring one or more of these desirable objectives about, except in general terms. One obligation falls on the teacher-training institutions. They must offer teachers and administrators preparation designed to serve better those who are going to work in the small high schools, and they are also obligated to offer consultant and advisory services to teachers, administrators, and governing boards who are wrestling with the problems of the small high school.

After that, it is largely a matter of leadership by the administrator and the citizens who are interested in this problem. During the recent war, when the outcome seemed to hang in the balance and the future of the British Commonwealth looked the darkest, Winston Churchill said that he could only give the British people one solution to their great problem, and his solution was "blood, sweat, and tears." In the main, the solution to the admin-

istrative problems of the small high schools lies in leadership, statesmanship, fortitude, imagination, hard work, and common sense—this particularly on the part of the administrators.

How Can We Solve Problems of Administration in the Small High School?

EARL HUTCHINSON

LET me begin by telling you about a successful man. When I met him, he had spent more than thirty years in the same small community. His name did not appear on important publications; he was not even very active on state committees. But he was an institution in his community, and profoundly affected the lives of his students. After knowing his work, I felt ashamed of my own professional activities, for here was a person who did a humble job superbly and will leave a living monument, while I have moved here and there actually creating nothing. Financially, too, I believe that even with his limited salary he will be better fixed upon retirement than I. During the years that he sold the people of his community on the need for a functional and good education for their high-school youth, he was selling himself into their hearts.

His school had contract relations with another small high school twelve miles distant. The two schools shared an agricultural teacher, a home economics teacher, and a physical education and recreation teacher. The town taxed itself heavily for schools. His building was a joy to visit. It was neat, clean, and in good repair; the excellent morale and friendly spirit of the students immediately struck one on walking into the building. Home and family living and agriculture were the basic cores of the school program. The community was the living laboratory of the school. A lay Boys' and Girls' Committee assisted in every activity of the school. Students gave service to both the community and to the school as a part of their citizenship education. Guidance was not organized into a definite program which could be diagrammed on paper, but actually existed for each boy and girl. The school followed up its graduates and provided certain local adult courses as citizens were interested.

Many years ago, the community purchased a teacherage where the principal and his family lived free of rent. The people feel that it has been their best investment, for it enabled them to retain their principal. A group of citizens built a small woodworking mill, and made the principal its manager, with a salary. Since it operated only during the summer months, he hired mostly students who were saving money for college or other purposes. During Christmas vacations, he generally took a crew of boys into the woods with him to cut trees for the mill. All student workers in this private enterprise were

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scrupulously paid prevailing rates, and boys clamored for jobs just to be with the principal who talked of many educational and personal things to the boys as they worked side by side. He was foster father to hundreds of youth. Hale and vigorous when almost sixty, he also had the added charm of a youthful attitude toward life. Always busy and always interested in everything concerned with his community, his boys and girls, and his teachers, he was the moving force toward the building of a community of almost idyllic charm. He devoted his career to this job, and a grateful people saw to it that he was able to live as comfortably as any of them.

I begin with this story, because the spirit of a leader can accomplish miracles, even in small high schools. And while we here can outline how problems of administration can be solved and can point out the many areas in which a person might depart from the usual road in order to build a better school for youth, unless the real personal interest and the vigor of an indomitable soul is there, techniques avail little. Those who remain in a small high school to do a good job are the unsung heroes of education.

INADEQUATE STAFFS

The two chief limiting factors in all small high schools are inadequate staffs and facilities. In order to overcome these obstacles, reorganization plans center chiefly on developing larger schools. It is pointed out that the three- or four-teacher high school is inefficient, and just cannot adequately serve youth in a modern society. Specialized courses cannot be economically offered in a small high school; for when there are too few pupils in a class, *per capita* costs become impractically high. More education per dollar results when a minimum of 300 pupils is brought together under one administrative roof. Figures and cold logic prove the point.

Consolidation will rightly continue to take place as school districts are reorganized and as roads and conveyance programs are improved. Yet I would point out that the progress of consolidation has not been excessively swift. In 1930, enrollments of less than 200 pupils were found in 74.7% of the public high schools of this country; in 1946, this dropped to 63.6% of them. The number of schools with enrollments of 100—199 students actually increased from 4,603 to 5,920 during this period.¹

At this rate, small high schools will be with us in considerable numbers for many years. In the meantime, what about the youth attending these schools? Must they continue receiving a barren fare? Must they have an inferior education while awaiting the millennium when only ideally sized schools prevail? I think not, and feel certain that able leadership can provide some advantages to small high schools. This Association recognizes this problem by placing it on its convention program.

I have read the presentations on the topic of small high schools as given

¹ Givmnitz, Walter H., ET AL. *How Large Are Our Public High Schools?* Federal Security Agency, Office of Education, Washington, D. C. Circular No. 304.

in last year's convention by Walter Gaumnitz, my co-worker in the U. S. Office of Education, and by Professor Langfitt. These two people probably know more about small high schools in this country than any other two persons you could name. In their addresses they have so thoroughly canvassed the field that there is little new to add. I recommend that you look up what they said, as reported in the May, 1949 Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals. Therein are listed many specific and practical solutions to the administrative problems of the small high school.

LACK OF LEADERSHIP AND FACILITIES

In general, they point out that the small high school can overcome its handicaps in serving youth by the judicious and well-integrated use of community resources—both in persons and facilities. When the people of a community share in the planning of a school program tailored to meet the needs of their own boys and girls, they will drag to light previously unthought-of personnel and materials to supplement the school staff and equipment.

A key person in so mobilizing a community is the principal. In small communities, he is the leader and expert in high-school education. He cannot hope to duplicate the organization of the large high school, nor should he. However, he wants his youth to have every advantage of larger schools, but is faced with the fact that there just is not enough time or teacher resources to do all that should be done. Too often, the principalship of the small school is looked upon as the stepping stone to the principalship of a larger school. Consequently, most small high schools do not have continuity in their program, due to the rapid turnover of their principals. He generally is not able to attend many state or national conventions of professional organizations. (How many in this audience have a high school with less than 200 pupils?) Since there also is a rapid turnover in his teaching staff, the principal must give some in-service training. Of course, he too must do some teaching—probably several classes a day, and often in subjects which other teachers are not able to handle, but which he assumes because he has perhaps had more general experience. He must concern himself with public relations, discipline, janitorial services, supplies, and countless other duties. Then we wonder why so many small high schools appear unkept and lacking in vigor. In the traditional small high school, too much depends upon too few people.

The small high-school principal should be top-flight organizer. In order to avoid a nervous breakdown, he should decentralize and delegate many responsibilities which so many principals of small high schools now carry. He will have to harness the resources of the community, bringing lay citizens together to help develop an expanded educational program. He will in self-defense entrust more and more responsibility to the students themselves. His teachers will of necessity have to work together on large problems and will learn through doing. Working thus, the principal will grow in stature, and his school will increasingly meet youth needs in spite of limitations, for when

the energies of people are released and given scope for activity in a worthwhile cause, momentous things happen. Oftentimes, when a principal has a school so operating, a larger, neighboring community will eye his good work with envy and employ him with a substantial increase in salary! Even though his successor be more conservative than he, the program will not slide all the way back to where it was, for certain practices in democratic organization have a habit of becoming customs.

Samples of these kinds of procedures are varied and many; educational literature is filled with them. Particularly notice *Broadening the Services of Small High Schools*² or *Co-operative Planning*.³ I began this presentation by telling you about one small high-school principal. Let me tell of others who overcome, in one respect or another, the deficiencies of inadequate personnel and facilities.

I remember very vividly visiting a country high school of about 70 pupils. During the next to last period, I visited the class of the principal. At the end of the period, he told me that he and his three teachers were having a faculty meeting during the last period and that the students were having a meeting of their own. I chose to visit the students. There, without a teacher to supervise, pupils met in the large "Main Room" and conducted one of the best student group meetings I have ever witnessed. It was more of a town meeting sort of thing than a student council affair. Library funds and use of the library took up part of the time. Apparently, this department was entirely student controlled. A group of boys agreed to cut poles and put in basketball backboards on the school grounds. Money was appropriated from the student association treasury for the purchase of a basketball, with definite instructions given to a committee elected for the purpose *not* to purchase a ball commonly used in gymnasiums, but to get one that could withstand the abrasive action of a graveled yard. Several students volunteered to come on Saturday to help paint the two toilets in the building. A local merchant was selling the paint to the students at the wholesale price. When the meeting was over, the chairman called attention to some litter which was picked up. As the group disbanded, there was no rush to the exits. Pupils walked out orderly and quietly. Some remained to study; others met in small groups for various purposes. This example of student self-activity ranks high in my estimation. Think of the values students were gaining! Also think of a harassed principal whose worries and work load were so lightened through this kind of student morale and spirit that he could give his energies to other important matters.

In Japan, where I spent several months this winter, I visited more than thirty schools. I saw many good things, but will tell about only two that seem to bear on our subject. In one school, I found a group of seven young men in

² Gaumnitz, Walter H. and Wright, Grace S. *Broadening the Services of Small High Schools*. Bulletin 1948, No. 9, Federal Security Agency, Office of Education, Washington, D. C.

³ Gaumnitz, Walter H. and Devilbiss, Wilbur. *Co-operative Planning*, Pamphlet No. 102, Federal Security Agency, Office of Education, Washington, D. C.

a room with a couple of students. Other students came, remained a while, and went. On inquiry, I found that the young men were graduates of the school—all under thirty years of age. One was the Chief of Police. These men constituted a "Big Brother" club which helped students in the high school get jobs, advised on their personal problems, investigated cases of delinquency, and helped individuals of the school in any way possible. They coached class athletic teams, and conducted a community recreation program. It was a service in which responsible lay adults who were young enough to remember their own youth gave to students of their former school. This certainly was harnessing the human resources of a community and adding to faculty resources.

In another Japanese school, I found a "Demonstration Day" in process. Parents and teachers from other schools were the visitors. Two things impressed me. Teachers from other schools were taking notes on procedures that caught their attention. After the school day, small groups of them met with different teachers of the home school to quiz them about their program—why they did thus in the classroom, what they did for certain individuals who obviously were handicapped, *etc.* The other feature was a meeting of home room PTA's with the teacher during the teacher's free period. Some of the questions raised by the parents, as best I secured them through my interpreter, ran like this: "Wouldn't a visit to the newspaper plant help students understand the complicated process involved in getting out a daily newspaper? I know the manager personally and would be glad to arrange for a carefully guided tour." Another: "You say you would like to give a test which has some national norms in order to determine how your students compare with others. Our treasury has a little money which we could contribute toward the buying of them." Another: "My Fumico says she can't see the blackboard. I notice that the light is bad and perhaps it is not her eyes that are weak. Anyhow, where can I get her eyes examined, and how can we fix the blackboards so they will not show so much glare?" Surely, we do not see enough of this kind of working relations between American teachers and parents.

Coming back to other examples in this country, I knew of one principal of a small school who organized a Citizens' Council to provide both work experience and vocational instruction. In his small town, it was surprising the number of possibilities that were unearthed. For example, the local electrician took two boys from 2:00 P. M. to 5:00 P. M. three days a week and gave them instruction on the job. Sometimes they served as his helpers. Other times, when he was not out on a job, he instructed them in the repairs of electrical apparatus that had been left at his shop. Similarly, the plumber, a building contractor, two merchants, the starch factory operator, the garage-man, the telephone manager, a potato broker, a farm implement agent, and a barber helped introduce young people from the school to the world of work. The Citizens' Council maintained contacts with employers, and constantly

sought desirable outlets for boys and girls. The Council also was concerned with the character of the employers and made certain that no exploitation of youth was practiced and that learning experiences were provided. Many a young person, upon completing his high-school program, found congenial employment with the establishment in which he had his work experience. Several young graduates were set up in farming through the influence of the Citizens' Council. Loans were made upon character, and without the usual collateral.

Several years ago I visited a small high school in a poor community. Practically no pupils went on to college. As a member of a state department of education, I was alarmed when the new principal eliminated physics from the program of studies. When I went there, he told me that only three boys from the combined junior and senior classes had elected physics. He found out that students avoided the subject because they thought it was hard, it was academic, and would not be of any use to them. Consequently, he offered in its place four terminal semester courses in auto mechanics, electricity, radio, and a peculiarly local "fixit" general shop. These courses alternated so that juniors and seniors were combined to give large enough classes to use one instructor's time, and to provide a two-year program in practical work. The principal, a science teacher himself, albeit a practical one, taught the course. Students had fixed up a room in the basement of the school, cut a wide door into the basement, built a ramp to it, improved the lighting, *etc.*, to make a workable room. They searched the town and obtained gratis two wrecked cars which they brought into the basement. Handbooks from different automobile companies were also secured. Students and others contributed miscellaneous hand tools. The local garageman lent larger pieces of equipment from time to time, and on occasion came in to help. One car was repaired, and every step constituted a learning unit. The other was cut down to become a "Doodlebug" tractor, which eventually was sold to one of the boys for the cost of the materials purchased. Some boys were afraid to elect the second-semester course in electricity. But when it was pointed out to them that the course would be based on the ignition system of the car, which they had not touched upon during the auto mechanics semester, they fell to with a will. In the radio course, simple bread-board layouts were made and eventually repairs were made on their own home and car radios. Several times, a radio repairman from a neighboring town came over to assist the instructor. The "fixit" course was unique in that students could bring almost anything to class for repair. Broken china, furniture to be reglued and refinished, clocks, broken farm implements, toys, and almost every conceivable thing was brought in. Pamphlets of all kinds decorated the shelves which contained instructional materials. From first appearances one would wonder what kind of hodge-podge existed; but after watching boys at work, the instructor assisting one student after another, citizens with special skills helping, and makeshift ap-

paratus being well used, I felt that here was a real learning experience which started with nothing but which now filled some needs of these youth. Incidentally, all phases of the former physics course had been touched upon, and I continued the school on our approval list.

Need I belabor the point? Here were men, even as you and I, whose vision and leadership surmounted conditions which have been cheating rural boys and girls of their rightful educational opportunities. The small high school can serve youth better than it has!

Group X—Room 203

CHAIRMAN: *George E. Shattuck*, Principal, Free Academy, Norwich, Connecticut.

What Are the Best Ways of Strengthening Our State Association Programs?

LOUIS J. WOLNER

THERE are at least two ways of strengthening the programs of our state associations. The first method is to follow the ten commandments of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals. Instead of being negative injunctions, these are ten positive prescriptions that are contained in the March, 1947, *BULLETIN*, bearing the title, "The Imperative Needs of Youth of Secondary-School Age."

This publication is the educational code for any secondary-school principal who would provide for his students the abundant life. It suggests that the high school should help boys and girls meet ten basic needs for significant living. It should assist students to become effective workers in our economic life; to develop good health and physical fitness; to undertake the rights, duties, and privileges of citizenship; to live harmoniously in a family; to purchase and use goods and services wisely; to understand the methods of science and its influence on life; to increase their appreciation of beauty in literature, art, music, and nature; to use leisure time wisely; to grow in their insight into ethical principles; and to think rationally and express themselves clearly.

If these are the ten imperative needs of youth, then every high school should be concerned in satisfying them. If every high school should be concerned about them, then a state association should help its members understand the significance of these needs and the means by which they can be implemented in the curriculum. This implies that an association could profitably set up a ten-year program of study in order to focus the attention of administrators each year on one of the ten commandments of the National Association.

Louis J. Wolner is Principal of the Homer Central School, Homer, New York.

The New York State Association of Secondary-School Principals has already undertaken this long-term study. In December, 1948, we set the stage by devoting our convention to a consideration of general education—the common learnings which all boys and girls of high-school age need, regardless of their vocational aspirations. Last December our first theme from the bulletin of the National Association was "Education for Home and Family Living"; and at the end of the next nine years, we hope every member of our Association will have learned the ten commandments of the National Association so that he will be in a position to minister unto the ten pressing needs of boys and girls in our American society.

A second way to strengthen the programs of our state associations is to make them more than an annual dinner-meeting organization which convenes once a year to discuss educational programs and then does little about them the rest of the year. Through no desire of our own, we in New York had such an association until this year. At convention time we used to warm up to proposals that held promise for the improvement of our curriculum but, after we had returned to our schools, the fire died. Somehow, dreams and the suggestions from the platform of the convention did not step down into our schools and communities.

The reason was that the structure of our organization did not provide for an open-line of communication between our state planning committee and the schools of the state. Consequently, we streamlined our association, by establishing a state council of sixteen principals who represent sixteen districts of the state. These members have two jobs: they will plan and execute the program of the annual convention, and they will urge the principals of their district, in co-operation with the state education department and nearby colleges of education, to tackle in their own schools the problems and proposals that are discussed at the conference. Under this arrangement, principals will work the year round on one of the ten imperative needs of youth that provides the theme for our annual convention.

This open channel of communication between the state council and the schools should enrich our programs. For example, this past December the theme of our convention was "Education for Home and Family Living." In two years, we expect that many schools of the state will have implemented this imperative need of youth in their curriculum. At a succeeding convention, we will high-light the significant developments in education for family living, and every year thereafter we will provide a place on the program of the annual convention for those schools that have adopted promising practices for satisfying any one of the ten imperative needs. Thus, the theme of any particular year will be echoed another year, and the concrete evidence of schools that have made significant curricular innovations should dispel, at convention time, a common complaint that proposals from the platform exist in a rarefied atmosphere beyond the reach of the workaday school.

Using the ten commandments of the National Association as the theme of our conventions and charging the members of the council of our state association with responsibility of urging principals in their districts to attack the problems discussed at convention time will help us in New York—and perhaps some of you elsewhere—to strengthen the state association programs.

What Are the Best Ways of Strengthening Our State Association Programs?

F. M. PETERSON

THE Illinois Association of Secondary-School Principals has enjoyed a tremendous growth and corresponding increase in strength during the past five years. I, personally, attribute this growth to two things: *first*—the leadership during this period has been exceptional; *second*—a fine program has developed under the guidance of outstanding educational leaders. The outstanding feature of the over-all program of the Illinois Secondary-School Principals' Association during the past five years has been the curriculum program. This program, launched in September, 1947, is sponsored by the State Superintendent of Public Instruction in co-operation with colleges and universities, the Illinois Secondary-School Principals' Association, and thirty-nine lay and professional groups.

The major purposes of the Illinois Secondary-School Curriculum Program together with an enumeration of the major activities which have been sponsored to achieve these purposes are six in number and are as follows:

PURPOSE: 1. To co-ordinate on a state-wide level and on a local school level all of the persons and groups who are, or who should be, interested in the high-school curriculum.

Activities: On the state level, the persons and groups have been effectively organized into a Steering Committee, which includes representatives of the State-Superintendent's Office, the Illinois Secondary-School Principals' Association, colleges and universities, professional organizations of teachers and administrators, agriculture, labor, business, manufacturing, the Illinois Association of School Boards, the service organizations, and the Illinois Congress of Parents and Teachers. The major functions of this Committee are to formulate general policies, to make available and to steer services to local schools, and to establish a co-ordinated curriculum program in which all state-wide organizations will work together. At the local school level, a similar type of representative organization has been organized and for the same purposes.

PURPOSE: 2. To sponsor studies basic to curriculum revision.

Activities: One of the major points upon which the State Steering Committee agreed is that the program should assist every participating school and community to get the facts about itself that are basic to curriculum revision.

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Four studies were variously conducted in 135 Illinois high schools. A holding-power study was conducted in 76 representative schools, a study of hidden tuition costs in 79, one on the extent and character of pupil participation in extra-class activities in 13, and a fourth on the adequacy of available guidance services in 96 schools. Copies of the inventories, tests, and schedules for conducting each of these studies have been set up in bulletin form. State-wide summaries of the findings in the schools mentioned, together with data for each school, have been returned to participating schools for use in the formulation of hypotheses regarding desirable local curriculum changes. The findings are now available in the following reference by Harold C. Hand: *Principal Findings of the 1947-48 Basic Studies of the Illinois Secondary-School Curriculum Program*. (Circular Series A, No. 51, Illinois Secondary-School Curriculum Program Bulletin No. 2, Office of the State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Springfield, Illinois, May, 1949.)

A fifth study in the series of studies basic to curriculum improvement, the follow-up study, was initiated on February 15, 1949. This study is being conducted in 97 schools.

These five studies were, and are, available to local schools largely on a cost-free basis. The Bureau of Research and Service of the College of Education, University of Illinois, has financed these studies in large part.

PURPOSE: 3. To encourage developmental (experimental) programs.

Activities: At the present time, the Illinois Secondary-School Curriculum Program is co-operating with 38 selected school systems in attempting to develop 74 projects. These projects are concerned with the improvement of existing courses in English, mathematics, science, social studies, *etc.*; with enrichment in broad fields; with the development of common learnings courses; and with projects which cut across subject lines.

A team of consultants from the colleges, universities, state department, and other high schools co-operate with persons affiliated with local schools in attempting to develop superior programs. If and when superior programs have been developed, the local teachers and administrators will help other schools on similar projects; moreover, as the local projects are being developed, teachers and administrators from other schools are encouraged to study what is going on. The findings from the basic studies conducted in these schools are of inestimable value in building a broadly based local consensus regarding what needs to be done and in furnishing numerous "specifics" which merit attention.

The personnel of the teams consists of members of the staffs of the Department of Public Instruction, Eastern Illinois State College, Illinois State Normal University, New Trier Township High School, Northern Illinois State Teachers College, Northwestern University, Oak Park Township High

School, Southern Illinois University, University of Chicago, University of Illinois, and Western Illinois State College. The institutions with which these persons are affiliated have contributed their services and paid expenses incurred.

The Steering Committee recently approved a plan whereby intensive consultation services will be made available to eight carefully chosen secondary schools. These services will be directed toward the improvement of the total school program, including community influences, interests, and organizations. In any one school, these services will be provided exclusively, or largely, by one higher institution. The University of Chicago, Northwestern University, and the six state-supported higher institutions have agreed to make available such services during the coming year.

PURPOSE: 4. To conduct workshops for principals and teachers.

Activities: More than 600 school administrators have attended one or more three-day workshops; 175 school administrators and teachers attended one three-day workshop; approximately 6,200 administrators and teachers from 29 counties have attended one of the 23 county meetings.

During the past summer, workshops were conducted by each of the state teachers colleges, in co-operation with the Illinois Secondary-School Curriculum Program. Three workshops are being held during the school year 1949-50 for teachers and administrators who are in schools which have developmental projects underway.

During the past two summer sessions, higher institutions in Illinois offered curriculum work, on a credit basis, which contributed much to the Illinois Secondary-School Curriculum Program. The ISSCP has co-operated, during the past two years, with many local school systems in conducting curriculum workshops.

PURPOSE: 5. To prepare and distribute publications.

Activities: Over thirty publications have been made available since the beginning of this study. Many of these publications have been revised from time to time. Four publications, issued through the Office of the State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Springfield, Illinois, are specially significant and are as follows:

Hand, Harold C., *How to Conduct the Hidden Tuition Costs Study*. Circular Series A, No. 51, Illinois Secondary-School Curriculum Program Bulletin No. 4. May, 1949.

Hand, Harold C., *How to Conduct the Participation in Extraclass Activities Study*. Circular Series A, No. 51, Illinois Secondary-School Curriculum Program Bulletin No. 5. May, 1949.

Hand, Harold C., *Principal Findings of the 1947-1948 Basic Studies of the Illinois Secondary-School Curriculum Program*. Circular Series A, No. 51, Illinois Secondary-School Curriculum Program Bulletin No. 2.

Houston, Victor M.; Sanford, Charles W.; and Trump, J. Lloyd, *Guide to the Study of the Curriculum in the Secondary Schools of Illinois*. Circular Series A, No. 51, Illinois Secondary-School Curriculum Program Bulletin No. 1, August, 1948.

PURPOSE: 6. To establish relationships with higher institutions.

Activities: A committee headed by Dean Ralph W. Tyler of the University of Chicago has completed a report concerned with bases for admissions to higher institutions. This report was approved, on October 15, 1949, by the Steering Committee. It will be presented to higher institutions in Illinois on or about December 5, 1950.

In closing, I would like to pay particular tribute to C. W. Sanford, chairman of the Curriculum Committee, and Assistant Dean of the College of Education at the University of Illinois, who is responsible for much of the material found in this report; Victor M. Houston, principal of the University High School, Illinois State Normal University Associate Director with Dr. Sanford in the Illinois Secondary-School Curriculum Program; James E. Blue, principal, West Senior High School, Rockford, past president of the Association; and Gerald W. Smith, principal of the Senior High School, Moline, the present president of the Association.

What Are the Best Ways of Strengthening Our State Association Programs?

G. BAKER THOMPSON

THE members of the Pennsylvania Branch of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals are very proud of their organization. They believe the state organization is interested in their welfare, equipped to serve them, and sufficiently powerful to secure results. Possibly, some of the activities of the Pennsylvania Principals' Association are not included in other state principals' groups; therefore, I will give a brief account of some projects of our association with the hope that they may appeal to other state organizations.

1. STATE CONVENTION

Each year on the last Monday and Tuesday of October, we hold a state convention. The program for this convention is very carefully planned by the President with the assistance of the Executive Committee. A diversified program including the best speakers, significant discussions of pertinent problems, and the best in entertainment is regularly provided. The convention has a fine reputation, is very well attended, and gives the association real prestige.

2. LOCAL PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATIONS

District Principals' Associations are encouraged, assisted, and used in every possible way. We find that wherever we have strong locals we have

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a high percentage of members in the state and national associations. The local, or district, associations make it possible for the state organization to do an effective job throughout the state.

3. PUBLISH SENIOR LISTS

Each year, every high-school principal in the state is asked to send a list of all members of his high-school graduating class to our secretary. Master lists of all the graduates in the state are then compiled. This list is then sold to approved institutions of higher learning. Principals are asked not to furnish lists of their graduates to any individual or institution. This project is financially profitable. Through our senior lists, we are rendering a service to approved institutions of higher learning; at the same time, we are protecting our seniors from solicitation by questionable schools and commercial institutions interested only in selling products that frequently are not necessary or valuable.

4. LEGAL AID FUND

Principals frequently find themselves the defendant in court suits brought by irate parents for some real or fancied injury. Even though the charges are fantastic and dismissed by judge or jury, the principal is frequently forced to spend considerable money to defend himself. The state association has set aside a sum of money, and, from this sum, it will give members financial assistance to help them defend themselves.

Several months ago our association began an investigation of the possibility of securing an insurance policy that would cover principals when they are faced with a law suit. In the near future, each of our members will be given the opportunity to purchase a policy giving him extensive coverage at a fraction of the cost a nonmember would pay individually for the same protection. This service of the association will likely be one of the most popular offered to date.

5. SUMMER WORKSHOPS

Four years ago the first summer workshops were set up in five (5) sections of the state. Twelve (12) workshop conferences are now held each year. They are strategically located in every section and are held in June or July for two or three days at a Teachers' or Liberal Arts College. Attendance ranges from less than a hundred to well over two hundred teachers, principals, superintendents, and college professors. The Planning Committee for each workshop selects the five or six educational problems that they feel are the most significant and will have the most appeal in their area. A State Planning Committee furnishes a list of a dozen or more pertinent problems from which the local Workshop Committee may select. Bibliographies, outlines, suggested consultants, publicity releases, etc. are provided. The workshops, unquestionably, are having a significant influence on educational programs and teaching methods in Pennsylvania. The Department of Public Instruction and the

State Education Association consider this work worthy of financial support and both help to underwrite the project.

6. PUBLISH AN ANNUAL YEARBOOK

Annually in August representatives from each of the twelve workshops meet with the members of the Research and Planning Committee to edit a combined report of the summer workshops. The report is then printed and distributed to every high school in the state and to college and libraries. Requests for the annual publication have been received from all over the United States.

7. INSTITUTIONAL MEMBERSHIP

Every high school in the state is invited to become an institutional member of the State Principals' Association. Small high schools are charged five dollars (\$5.00), and large schools ten dollars (\$10.00), with schools receiving five or ten copies of the publication. Institutional membership is growing and the money received from this source is making our professional program possible.

8. STATEWIDE COMMITTEES

The Pennsylvania Principals' Association has found it wise to appoint a committee with a representative in each section of the state. These members select assistance and are then prepared to implement any project the association feels is important. At the present time such a committee is working to secure, as nearly as possible, one hundred per cent membership in the association. Two years ago a court decision threatened to ruin our activity program as set up, financed, and controlled by the high-school principals. A bill was written, the state committee explained it to Legislators in every district, and it was passed by both houses of the Legislature without a single change and without a dissenting vote.

9. RELATIONSHIP WITH COLLEGES

High schools have always found it difficult to follow their graduates in many colleges. The Principals' Association devised two cards and secured their acceptance by the Pennsylvania Association of Colleges and Universities. The first card is filled out at the college when the student registers and is sent to his high-school principal. The high school then knows where the graduate is attending college. At the end of the first semester, or at the end of the first year, the high-school principal sends the second card to the college. The college enters the student's grade on this card and returns it to the high school.

The Pennsylvania Principals feel that their state association is a dynamic organization exerting an important influence on education. They also feel that it is rendering valuable service to the individual principal.

What Are the Best Ways of Strengthening Our State Association Programs?

MILTON H. KUHLMAN

IN the discussion of this topic, I am going to give you some of the features of the Association of our own state. These features, we believe, have been instrumental in making our group more helpful to our membership. As a result, our membership has trebled during the past ten years.

First let me explain the form of organization under which we operate. In addition to the regular officers, who are elected each two years, we have an Executive Committee consisting of a representative of each of the eight divisions of the Minnesota Education Association. This type of representation means that all portions of the state have a voice in the determination of Association policies. These representatives from the eight divisions are selected by the membership of the various divisions. Thus, each unit is the sole determinant of its delegate.

At least two, and usually three, meetings of the Executive Committee are held each year. All of the regular business of the Association is transacted at these meetings. Then, to be sure that the entire membership is informed of the Executive Committee's action, the minutes are published in our bulletin.

In line with its policy of having complete representation on its governing body, our Association believes that it is wise to have many members participating in its various activities. Much of the work in our state is done through committees. Membership in these committees comes largely from outside the executive group. Usually the chairman is selected from the Executive Committee, while the others are selected from the entire membership. Because we have twelve to fifteen committees working on various projects, the number of members actively engaged in the program of the Association is large.

PROFESSIONAL AID

In discussing the activity of our group, I think we could classify the bulk of the work into two fields. First, let us enumerate the projects aimed to develop practical means of being of professional aid to our members. One group made a rather complete study of home rooms as they were conducted in the state. The results were compiled and made available to the membership. A report or interpretation was made by the committee at a meeting of the Association. Schools where successful programs were in operation volunteered to send descriptive materials to those who were interested.

Our Executive Committee was asked to take some action to assist our principals who were being besieged by various selfish groups trying to get

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credit for sponsoring contests of different kinds. The number of such contests has grown so large that either school work suffers or else the school head must make a decision and, thereby, arouse the wrath of the membership of the group which was refused acceptance by the school. A Contest Committee was appointed to look into this matter and, after careful study, a plan was set up to screen out all contests deemed contrary to principles of good educational procedures. The Committee did not compel the principals of the state to accept any contests. It did ask them to recognize their action where they refused to place a contest on the approved list. The Committee has made it much easier for school heads to refuse to sponsor those contests which are not in keeping with good educational procedures. Our State Committee is in no way running in competition with the National Contest Committee.

Other committees which have been serving our principals is a Lyceum Program Committee which works with our University Lyceum Division in selecting appropriate programs for our high schools. Much favorable comment has been received from the schools of the state. The University also has indicated an appreciative attitude. We also have a committee working with our colleges on the problem of entrance requirements. With the superintendents, we have set up a number of committees such as: (a) State Testing Committee, (b) State Department of Education Aid, and (c) Annual School-men's week.

RECOGNITION OF THE PRINCIPALSHIP

The second type of assistance our Association renders can be listed under the heading "Projects of Value to the Recognition or Status of the Principalship." One committee made a study of principals' salaries. The report listed salaries of principals in schools of various sizes and also indicated amount of experience, training, and length of service in present position. This report has been a definite help to many of the low-bracket principals. Another committee has been working on requirements for certification of high-school principals. The state department of education has sought the advice of this committee in setting up state standards.

Upon the recommendation of the membership of our Association, a joint committee from our Association and the superintendents' group has been selected and is now working on the problem of delegation of administrative authority. It is hoped that, when this committee completes its work, a bulletin will be published outlining those responsibilities which have been delegated to him by the superintendent.

Our Association has published a state bulletin for about fifteen years. In this project again, it is the wish of our group to enlist the aid of as many members as possible. The method used to obtain this wide participation is car-

ried out by making each of the eight divisions of the state responsible for a bulletin. The first bulletins were put out by the divisions asking for the privilege of serving first. After that, the Executive Committee set up a schedule for publications by the remaining divisions. One deviation has been made in this plan, and that occurred last fall when the junior high-school principals asked for the privilege of editing a bulletin.

Until the past few years, the bulletins were mimeographed. This was necessary because of the prohibitive cost of printing. Recently, however, we have been able to interest two business concerns of our state in running page ads. This has made it possible to print the bulletin. Naturally, the result is a much neater, more compact, and permanent publication. It is, I believe, more generally read. Requests for copies have come from libraries and institutions of higher learning from several states.

It is the policy of our Association to hold state meetings each spring during Schoolmen's Week and in the fall at the time of our Minnesota Education Association meetings. To illustrate—this spring during Easter vacation, the Minnesota Secondary-Principals' Association will meet at the University on Monday afternoon, April 3rd. Then on Tuesday and Wednesday, luncheons will be held from noon until two o'clock.

In the fall of 1950, our Association will hold its meeting on October 27th. This is the second day of the Minnesota Education Association Convention. On that day, each organization has complete charge of the type of program they will furnish.

For our meetings, we bring in some outstanding leader in the field of Secondary education for some inspirational leadership. In addition, we have committee reports and then discussion from the membership. It is my opinion that here again we practice the policy of getting many members to participate. This procedure arouses a keen interest in all members.

Finally, I would like to tell you briefly about a recent addition to our program. We have begun to set up summer workshops for our members. The first one was held last summer from June 17 to 20 at one of the resorts in northern Minnesota. The attendance was good and the results were excellent. Already we are receiving applications for next summer. If you have not tried a program of this kind, do so as early as possible. You will be amazed at the results.

It is my sincere belief that when the principals of the state are given an opportunity to share in the program of an association, that association will thrive and become helpful. Especially will this be true if projects are undertaken which will help principals with their work and which will cause their status to be more secure.

What Are the Best Ways of Strengthening Our State Association Programs?

WILLARD H. VAN DYKE

A STATE association will be only as strong as its members make it. Some of the important factors in making a strong state association are:

1. A workable state-wide organization
2. Membership—A large percentage of all eligible members
3. Having a large per cent of the membership actively working on some phase of the association program
4. Have other professional organizations working on the secondary level be affiliated with the state association
5. Work closely with lay groups interested in secondary education, i.e. PTA. *etc.*
6. Goals set up at the beginning of the year
7. Publications
8. Development of an adequate financial program.

If all of the above activities are properly organized and co-ordinated, the state association is bound to become a vital factor in the educational program of any state. In our state we have found these factors very important in developing our program. In fact, our association is recognized as the strongest administrative group in California.

ORGANIZATIONAL SET-UP

We have the usual state officers: president, vice president, executive secretary. The state is divided into five regions with a regional director in charge who is elected by the members of the region. He has general supervision of all regional activities. In addition, there are two directors-at-large. One who is directly responsible for looking after the interests of the small high schools, the other acting as the legislative chairman for the state association. These directors, with the previous mentioned state officers, make up the executive board.

The regions are further divided into sections. Usually each region will have four or five sections, each having its own set of officers. The section president, along with the regional directors and state officers, form our representative council. This group meets four times a year and conducts all the business of the state association. The general policies and projects of the association are determined by this group. The most important program of the association is carried on in the sections. The entire state organization is dependent upon how successfully the sections conduct their programs. They are really the "grass roots" of our association.

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Sections hold monthly meetings—in most cases. Many of these are week-end conferences so that the members have an opportunity to explore thoroughly the problems under discussion. Two regional meetings are held each year.

We have followed the policy of developing a large number of operating committees each year. The chairman is usually appointed by the state president, and he in turn recommends members for his committee. His recommendations are taken unless the same man is recommended for several committees in which case the chairman makes changes, because we feel that as many people as possible should serve on committees and that one or two people should not be responsible for too many of our activities. In many cases the section meetings at our annual conference are built around the work these committees have been doing during the year.

Each regional director is responsible for the supervision of all state committees whose chairmen reside in his district. This is a new practice started this year and it has worked out very satisfactorily.

CO-OPERATION WITH OTHER ORGANIZATIONS

Several professional organizations have affiliated with us and have a representative on our representative council. Some of these are the Junior College Association, Adult Education Association, Continuation Education Association, and the Secondary-School Curriculum Co-ordinators. We have been glad to have these groups associated with us, and it has helped to strengthen our association.

We have found it very helpful to bring lay groups such as the PTA into our deliberations. These groups become contributing members and participate actively on the section level. Many section officers report that, by having these lay groups participate in the section meetings, it has given such groups an entirely new viewpoint of problems of administering our secondary schools.

FINANCE

The development of an adequate financial program is essential to the successful operation of any state association. Our association financial program depends upon funds from individual membership fees, institutional membership fees, contributing memberships, registration fees at annual conferences, sale of publications and forms, and fees charged exhibitors at conferences. The secretary of each section is responsible for the collection of all fees in his section and forwards them to the state office. We find this to be a much better system than to have the dues collected on a state-wide level. The funds from these sources are not overly plentiful, but they are sufficient to enable us to function quite effectively. It takes money to develop an effective state organization.

PUBLICITY

It is essential that all members become acquainted with the activities of the association. I feel that many times an association fails in its obligation by not properly informing its members of all the activities being carried on. This information should go out to them in the association bulletins, news letters, letters to section presidents, and by frequent visits by state officers to section and regional meetings. Publicity should also be given to the public through the newspapers. Proper publicity is a *must* in association work.

PROGRAMS

It is important that the association interest itself in all phases of the secondary-school program. We have found that week-end conferences on some phase of the curriculum, *i.e.* English, mathematics, have been of great value to our administrators. Teacher groups as well as administrators participate in the conferences. These conferences are conducted on a sectional basis rather than including larger geographical area.

The grand finale each year for the association should be the annual conference. Exceptionally careful planning must go into these conferences to make them valuable to each member. They must be organized in such a way that there is some activity in progress all the time. Activities should be planned for the wives of members. The program should be varied in order to prevent it from becoming tiresome. Develop a program in which great numbers of members have a definite responsibility. Entertainment is an important part of the conference, but it should be kept to a minimum.

I have tried to discuss some of the successful procedures we have used in California in developing our organization. I have left out a great many important items. The response of our members to our program have been very gratifying; however, we feel that there is still a great deal to be done.

Primarily I believe the success of any organization depends upon the extent to which members are actually working in the organization. Give your members a worth-while program to work on and your state association can't help but be an important factor in developing an educational program in your state.

What Are the Best Ways of Strengthening Our State Association Programs?

L. B. HOWLAND

BEING last on a panel of six in such a discussion as this rather rules out any presentation of generalities. Probably the best contribution this paper can make is a brief resumé of some of the things which have been done

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to make our Association strong, because today we believe we do have a strong state association. The Maryland Association is a new association. It was started as the war broke out and stumbled through the war years. Its early efforts were concerned largely with the welfare of the principal as a person. It dissipated its energies on matters which were largely of local administrative detail. Probably the explanation of this lay in the novelty of having an organization concerned about the welfare of the high-school principal.

Because of the size of the state, of the county-unit system, and of the rapidly expanding high-school program in the state of Maryland, control of the high school was highly centralized in the state department for about three decades. The attitudes and outcomes of this control might be considered as paternalistic. This control is being decentralized from a state to a county level. It is largely for this reason that only in the past few years has the high-school principalship emerged to stand on its own professional feet. This emergence was concurrent with the formation of the Maryland Secondary-School Principals' Association.

Our Association is now a department of the Maryland State Teachers' Association. Formerly, a sectional meeting entitled "Secondary Education" was scheduled at the annual meetings of the State Teachers' Association. This meeting grew into a high-school principals' meeting and was the only recognition of high-school principals as an autonomous group. From this developed our Secondary-School Principals' Association, in the formation of which we are advised and aided by the executive secretary of the National Association. Our membership is limited to principals and vice-principals in public and private senior and junior high schools in the State of Maryland.

The foregoing paragraphs present the high lights of the background for the real growth and development of the Maryland Secondary-School Principals' Association.

We believe the success of any association depends upon the worth-while-ness of its objectives and the ability to carry out those objectives. We are further agreed that our state association should be professional in its objectives. How professional we are in our state association will determine largely the loyalty with which the individual member supports the state association, and the degree of support and activity of each individual member is the key to the success of the organization.

If there are professional objectives, if there is ability to carry out those objectives, if there is loyalty of individual members, and if each member is active in the affairs of the organization, a professional program will emerge. By a professional program I mean a program which looks to the improvement of secondary education in the state. An improvement of secondary education certainly includes improvement of the situations in which school work is

carried on, and in this improvement I would also most certainly include any improvement in the social, economic, and professional status of the high-school principal.

MAJOR OBJECTIVES

Following is a brief outline of major points of our professional program.

Our first large objective was to inquire from the principals of the state the type of problem or question which may be common to many situations and which might profitably be discussed. These study projects were assembled, duplications were eliminated, and some were merged one with the other where they appeared to be overlapping. The principals of the state were encouraged to select one or more of these problems for study by county or regional units in much the same way as similar problems are being discussed at this convention here today and tomorrow. As a matter of fact, we have presented some of the same topics discussed at previous conventions to the principals of our state. Several reports from different units were considered important enough to be duplicated and distributed throughout the state.

The Association then turned to lend its support in another direction. There had been some discussions among our principals and encouragement from the National Association to form a State Association of Student Councils. The Secondary-School Principals' Association turned its attention towards fostering this movement and encouraging the formation of student councils in those schools in which they did not now exist. The Association looked to a teacher who at that time was not eligible for membership in the Association to head up this movement under the direction and guidance of an Association committee. A state-wide meeting was arranged in the fall of 1948 and again in the fall of 1949. To these meetings the principals, sponsors, and student representatives from the schools of Maryland were invited. Mr. Van Pool, Director of Student Activities of the National Association, was of great assistance at the first state-wide meeting as well as in lending help and counsel before and since. As a result of these efforts the state organization of student councils seems to be successfully launched.

Somewhat the same action was taken concerning student publications. There already was an association known as the Maryland Scholastic Press Association which, however, represented but very few schools in the state. One very successful convention of sponsors and representatives of student publications throughout the schools of the state was held. We hope within the next year, to feel that our efforts in this field have been as successful as they were in the student-council field.

Having launched these two undertakings the Association entered a still different area. For some time we had received criticism concerning music education in the state from those leaders in music who had come into the state to aid in advancing music activities, and also from those engaged in music

education in the state. The executive committee of the Maryland Secondary-School Principals' Association invited a similar committee from the Maryland Music Educators' Association to meet with us and to lay before our committee some of the things which they felt were lacking in the music program of the state, and to discuss with us ways in which the high-school principals of the state might properly engage to improve these situations. As a result of this meeting, a subcommittee of both organizations drew up a very concise but complete report of what this committee considered necessary to make a good music program. This report was distributed to all the high-school principals of the state, to the principals of the larger elementary schools, and to such supervisory and administrative officers as seemed to be concerned therewith.

The culmination of these activities was a luncheon meeting of the combined Maryland Secondary-school Principals' Association, the Maryland Elementary-School Principals' Association, and the Maryland Music Educators' Association. To this meeting top levels of administration and supervision were invited. Dr. Mursell of Columbia University was engaged as the speaker. The consensus at that gathering was that the cause of music had advanced farther in the few weeks of mutual help and study and in the two hours of this meeting than it had in many years. One outcome was the engagement of Dr. Mursell by the State Department to make a survey of the needs of music education in the state. This work is now going on. Our Association is at present actively co-operating with the Music Association.

SUMMARY

The foregoing paragraphs set forth the high lights of activities in broad fields of endeavor of the past two and a half years. It should be noted that these activities were diversified in three directions. First, discussion and conclusions on problems and practices which affect the daily life of the secondary school. Some of these are administrative. One report was on our ever present problem, school athletics. The second activity of the Association dealt with student activities, the third activity ventured into a subject field. In addition to these major activities the Association was engaged in many others which were not minor in importance but minor only, because they took less time and effort. One incident was the investigation, upon complaint of the person involved, of the circumstances surrounding the demotion of one of the personnel of a school system in the state. This particular incident is worth noting inasmuch as there would have been no such recourse available a very few years ago.

And so our state Association has grown rapidly in strength and prestige. Time does not permit the listing of further evidences of this growth. Those of us who have been privileged to have a hand in guiding the Association's work in the past few years feel that this growth in stature and prestige has been because we have kept our program on a high professional

plane. The Association looks forward to a continually expanding program of usefulness for the benefit of the Association, of its members, and, finally, of the ones for whom it is established, the pupils of the state.

The results which have been obtained and the prestige which has been attained present a challenge to the Association and to each individual member. We feel that this challenge is great enough to show that the high-school principalship as a career is worthy of any one's best efforts toward the development of youth, the benefit of the state, and the enhancement of his own professional stature.

Group XI—Room 600

CHAIRMAN: *Galen Jones*, Director, Division of Elementary and Secondary Schools, Office of Education, Washington, D. C.

INTERROGATORS AND CONSULTANTS:

T. H. Broad, Research and Instructional Assistant, School of Education, Oklahoma A. and M. College, Stillwater, Oklahoma; Principal, Webster High School, Tulsa, Oklahoma, on leave.

Francis W. Sisson, Assistant Supervisor, Division of Secondary Education, State Board of Education, Richmond, Virginia.

What Is Education for Life Adjustment?

PAUL D. COLLIER

IT is desired that this discussion of education for life adjustment be definitely related to the characteristics and needs of today's youth. In 1890 only a small group of youth obtained a high-school education. The program offered to this small group was narrow as compared to that found in the modern comprehensive high school of today. The dominant motive in this high-school program of sixty years ago was that of the liberal arts. It was expected that only a handful of the most brilliant youth, as identified by their superior ability to learn readily from books organized as subjects, should have the opportunity to enter and complete high school. The liberal arts program so keenly enjoyed by this group of pupils was continued on the college level. However, with the growing consciousness of the necessity for more and better education in a democracy, opportunity to attend high school has been generally accepted as a right for every normal youth.

With the tremendous growth in business and industry came a demand for young workers possessing marketable skills in these fields. Teen-age youth interested in and needing vocational education were now recognized. The development of vocational education has been rapid. Today business,

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agriculture, trade, technical, and many other terms indicate the great variety and extent of vocational education throughout the country. These programs are increasing in number and improving in accordance with practical demands.

Special educational programs were next added to accommodate the needs of many pupils who could not make satisfying progress except through especially adapted techniques and materials of instruction. The discovery and use of techniques and activities suitable for these special pupils have proved to be of inestimable value in the education of all youth.

It is common knowledge that many pupils reach secondary-school age chronologically and with normal physical maturity for this age but are retarded educationally. The causes of this retardation may include lack of interest, lack of effort, and unsatisfactory school and home conditions. Whatever the cause of low achievement, education on the elementary level is now accepted as the responsibility of the secondary school for a large number of pupils. Group or grade standards must yield to the sounder individual standard suitable to the growth and developmental needs of each pupil.

The gifted, talented, and well-motivated pupil has been subjected in the past to a school program that lacks sufficient challenge for his superior abilities. There is a large number of such pupils in the secondary schools. If given the appropriate opportunity, they can reach education levels now unattainable except in colleges and other post-secondary institutions.

One purpose of this discussion is to show the constantly increasing, cumulative job of the secondary school. Another purpose is to show that a great principle is being accepted in reality; *viz*, all the children and youth of this democracy must be educated to the extent of their capacities.

The Federal government has promoted the establishment of this principle most recently through educational programs extended to those who served in World War II. It is inconsistent, however, to allow youth growing up today to have their education interrupted or postponed indefinitely because of their financial inability to pay necessary costs. This is a basic principle in education for Life Adjustment.

The secondary school must include in its job, the traditional liberal arts education for the few, and vocational education, special education, education on the elementary level, and advanced programs for the superior and talented youth.

The achievement of balance among these five types of education mentioned above and designed to meet the developmental needs of youth in the secondary school is at present a difficult problem. Every youth is entitled to a realistic program of common learnings, and in addition to this, a special education tailored to his dominant interests and abilities, such as preparation for a particular post-secondary institution, a vocation, or both.

Because of a lack of an adequate school program, a lack of guidance, a lack of requirements by school authorities, or a lack of encouragement by parents, pupils are offering programs for graduation from high school today that are weak in needed life adjustment education values. In fact, many important vital elements of education may be entirely missed by the pupil. A study of programs offered for graduation in Connecticut in 1947 showed that many pupils of all levels of ability and with all known purposes for specialization have weak programs in one or more of the following elements: functional English, useful mathematics, everyday science, citizenship, art, home and family living, health and allied elements, music, and human relations. The moral and spiritual heritage which is passed on to each generation is contained in the elements of life adjustment education.

Since the contents of life adjustment education are outlined and discussed in recent professional literature, it is desirable to spend the remainder of the time allotted to deal with critical problems and issues which condition and determine the success of life adjustment education in the secondary school.

OBJECTIVES MUST BE DETERMINED

The first important task that faces a school faculty, concerns the selection of objectives. Many good statements of objectives have been made by the teaching profession. However, no pattern of objectives should be adopted without careful study by the school faculty. If this pattern of objectives is to make sense in a particular community, both pupils and citizens must participate in its selection. Without definite objectives, a climate favorable for the promotion and strengthening of vested subject-matter interests on the part of members of the faculty will be fostered. If such a condition prevails, it will be difficult to work for changed behavior, better understandings, and improved skills for boys and girls.

The outcome will be more than satisfactory when the entire school and community accepts responsibility for selecting objectives. This process is at the heart of education for life adjustment.

DETERMINING NEEDS OF PUPILS

The school is concerned with all phases of pupil growth and development. The school can easily be too casual in determining levels of maturity attained by the pupil. If a program of education is based upon a superficial appraisal of the pupil's levels of maturity, serious maladjustment is sure to occur. "Flying blind" is a term which may well be used to describe a program based on guesses. Some phases of development which concern a youth are his family relationships and responsibilities, his relationships to other boys and girls of his own age, his reading skills, his practices in speaking, his civic competence and his outlook in school and community, his physical development and skills, his adjustment to the world of work, and so on. This is a partial list of areas of living which concerns all youth. The professional staff

of a school should devise and select more accurate means to determine each youth's needs. All youth face practical problems of living which they need to solve. Teachers cannot accurately identify these practical problems without the assistance of the youth themselves. Parents' help should be sought, also, as their insights concerning the youth's needs are significant. Unless needs and levels of maturity are discovered, programs offered to youth may miss the mark completely. In such a situation, education for life adjustment is not possible.

CURRICULUM

The program of the secondary school should be in reality the summation of programs for individual pupils based on their needs and maturity levels. The activities, projects, and units of work should emphasize the solution of real problems based on these needs and maturity levels. Preparation for post-secondary education, preparation for work, doing an effective day's work in school, getting along well with other boys and girls, understanding parents, driving a motor car, using the English language, engaging in recreational activities, and so on are representative areas encompassing real problems faced by youth. Unless the problems faced by youth take precedence over assignments in textbooks, education for life adjustment loses most of its reality. Fear of triviality should not deter administrators and teachers from launching a program based on youth's real problems. Teachers should have faith in themselves to guide pupils into the most worth-while activities. One of the basic issues in program planning concerns the use of excellent, commercially prepared materials, especially the textbook. The use of these materials must be timed to help solve the urgent problems as they arise and are faced by youth. It should be borne in mind that definite courses of study developed by teachers in advance for use in the classroom may upset things and ignore the particularity of a youth's problems. Greater economy and effectiveness could be achieved if problems, activities, and techniques were selected through teacher-parent-pupil co-operation. This procedure is necessary if education is to result in life adjustment.

DEFINING, DEVELOPMENT, AND INSTITUTING A PROGRAM OF COMMON LEARNINGS

A common learnings program must make sense for each pupil and must be acceptable in this democratic way of life. The youth must learn to approach controversial issues with fairness, marshalling all the facts available before reaching a decision. He should be taught to defer judgment and continue study when the evidence is not conclusive. A common learnings program should be organized under major areas of living, based on objectives clearly defined and supported by teachers, adult citizens, and pupils. Studies clearly indicate that vital elements in common learnings are left out of programs which pupils have completed at the time of high-school graduation. Many excuses have been offered for these deficiencies. Each of the following excuses

should be explored to determine the causes of the omission. The omission is due to:

1. Scheduling difficulties and insufficient time
2. Lack of funds
3. Lack of community understanding and support
4. Lack of faculty understanding and support
5. Lack of understanding and support by the administrators
6. Fear of college authorities and approving agencies
7. A belief that the element is covered sufficiently in other areas of the school's program
8. Postponement for future and more favorable time
9. Lack of building facilities and teachers
10. A conviction that some pupils do not need the program and should, therefore, be excused from taking it
11. The conviction that the element is entirely the responsibility of non-school agencies.

Whatever the status may be concerning the problems and difficulties, hindering the establishment of a framework for a well-balanced program of common learnings, they must be faced and solved by each school faculty.

SPECIALIZATION FOR THE INDIVIDUAL PUPIL

The holding power of the secondary school increases as pupils develop stronger motives for attendance. A dominant motive is associated with a desire to specialize or major in some particular area of education. Every pupil should have this opportunity. In order to satisfy the great range of interests for specialization of pupils, the school must greatly increase such opportunities. A large number of pupils finishing the general course in a school usually indicates a deficiency in opportunities for specialization. In the past, programs in various fields in the high school have frequently lacked challenge because many avenues and levels have been closed to pupils. The range of opportunities for specialization or majoring should include, art, music, languages, science, history, mathematics, business, agriculture, trades, and preparation for all post-secondary institutions. In fact, all areas of the high school should offer possibilities. The opportunity to plan and specialize in a given area should be largely individual. No pupil's plan should be blocked by another pupil's interests. The organization of the school should be such as to avoid favoritism. A pupil majoring in music, science or agriculture should not be handicapped by schedules and school procedures which favor a pupil preparing for college or specializing in history or English. Each pupil specializing should assume responsibility in planning and doing his work. Through an analysis of the nature of the pupil's job in specialization, criteria should be developed to determine a balance between group and individual instruction. Too frequently, group instruction results in a waste of time for many pupils.

All schools face difficult problems in providing equitable opportunities for specialization. The small school cannot fulfill its obligation to its pupils in providing needed opportunities for specialization unless it makes use of such means as correspondence courses, secures the co-operation of nonschool agencies, and develops procedures to meet particular problems and so on.

LOADS CARRIED BY PUPILS

The sizes and types of load that should be carried by a pupil in the secondary school has received too little attention. When this problem is discussed, it proves to be a controversial issue. There are many significant points of view that must be considered. A feeling of insecurity concerning the possible opinions of citizens and college authorities discourages change in many schools, and the question "What type and size of load assures a better education for pupils?" remains unexplored and unanswered. In practice, there is too much of a "sameness" in loads carried by pupils which is not affected by great variations in abilities and needs. It seems reasonable to assume that size and characteristics of loads should not be the same for all pupils. The art of developing balanced loads for individual pupils is practically undiscovered. The size and characteristics of the loads carried by pupils today are not structured to enable pupils to get optimum growth and development through the high-school program. Pupils will continue to fall far short in the achievement of their own and the schools objectives unless real progress is made in the solution of this problem of loads. It is interesting to note that some schools are increasing the loads of pupils and have experienced encouraging results.

TIME ELEMENTS AND SCHEDULING

The use of time in the schedule of the school program greatly conditions the amount and quality of pupil growth. Today the organization of the secondary school is like granite in its inflexibility. It should be like some pliable substance that can be shaped readily to accommodate youth needs through activities with varying lengths and differing characteristics. After observation extending over a period of years, the following conclusions concerning the use of time seems justified:

1. Too much time is used for repetitive and ineffective recitation procedures
2. Too little time is used by pupils in study and research
3. There is great overemphasis on teacher dominated assignments
4. There is too little time for teacher-pupil planning
5. There needs to be a re-allotment of time among the various school activities in accordance with relative values and the nature of the work to be accomplished
6. Conflicts in scheduling among various activities force pupils to make choices among those which have high priority for their education.

Unless inherent and traditional weaknesses in scheduling and use of time are corrected, pupils will continue to lose many valuable elements in a program of education for life adjustment.

SELF-DIRECTION

From the time the youngster enters nursery school until he is graduated from the twelfth grade, he is expected to increase in the ability to plan and direct his own activities. This is the supreme goal of life adjustment education. If this could be achieved, there could be tremendous changes made in the use of school facilities and teachers' time. Economies in instruction would result also. The characteristics of the job of the teacher would change from that of disciplinarian to youth leader. The atmosphere of the school and the morale factors would improve if pupils develop the abilities and skills required.

EDUCATIONAL CONDITIONING

Many pupils don't know why they are in school, while others have only vague notions of this. Much mediocrity results because of this ignorance about purposes. Education must make sense, and must have reality for each pupil. The failure to see values, together with the abstractions of the present program in the secondary schools, cause large numbers to drop out as soon as possible. Continuous emphasis is necessary if the pupil is to understand the purposes and learn to evaluate his progress in the various elements of his growth. The pupil should understand the purposes of the program to such a degree that he will not want to miss any part of his total education opportunity. As part of his educational conditioning, the school personnel must help him learn to work effectively and somehow make him realize that hours and days lost cannot be recovered. This educational conditioning cannot be accomplished without plan. Counselling periods, orientation meetings for eighth-grade pupils, library lessons for freshmen, lectures, and so on, all help the pupil understand purposes of secondary education. All of the above means for adjustment have value, but other interesting and practical ways to help pupils understand the values of education are necessary.

This program should extend over the entire period of school attendance. The pupils should participate in the activities which prove the values of education. Much ingenuity is needed in developing the program for educational conditioning. The take-it-or-leave-it attitude on the part of any member of the professional staff may weaken the effectiveness of all efforts.

For parents and other citizens, participation is the key to educational conditioning. For the professional staff, the key is in-service education. In fact the success of the entire program of life adjustment education depends upon the in-service training program for secondary-school faculties. The problems and issues briefly discussed in this article are among those which should be included in a program of educational conditioning for the pupils, adult citizens, and the entire professional staff of a secondary school.

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What Is Education for Life Adjustment?

V. A. KLOTZ

AS a preface to my remarks I should like to re-emphasize a statement made by Dr. Robert Gilchrist at the North Central Association meeting last spring. He said, "We who are here today have an opportunity to give leadership in our schools to the end that education serves the society which has founded it." It seems to me that a new era in education is here. We have dreamed many years about a program of education in secondary schools that would be meaningful to all boys and girls. Leadership is needed today, as never before, if the new movement of life adjustment education is to prove fruitful.

Similar statements have been pronounced by at least one speaker at every educational conference that I have attended in the past twenty-five years. However, it seems to me that we have worried too much about leadership and not enough about fellowership.

We have had notable pioneers in secondary education from the early twenties. There have been courageous leaders who have urged nation-wide acceptance of an educational program that would serve "all the children of all the people." The basic principles of the Life Adjustment Program have been discussed under such titles as common learnings, functionalizing the high-school subjects, core curriculums, pupil-centered schools, experience-centered schools, imperative needs of youth, and many others.

But change from the traditional school program has been at a snail's pace. While a few leaders, a few experimental schools have been blazing new trails, the great body of secondary schools has continued to be dominated by the academic curriculum which consistently has placed emphasis upon mastery of preparatory subjects, an accumulation of factual knowledge, the elimination of those who were not academically minded, and a reliance upon autocratic standards of marking, accreditation and graduation.

Secondary schools need not only good leadership but unquestionably better fellowership. Many in the profession have little or no contact with the philosophy, the objectives, the experiments, or the accomplishments of the pioneering secondary schools. These individuals belong neither to the National Association of Secondary-School Principals nor to an accrediting organization such as the North Central Association, which has been promoting and reporting studies for the past twenty years.

The new program of life adjustment education is another step of the many which have been taken in an attempt to vitalize the secondary-school program. This program has nothing new to offer in the field of philosophy,

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in the statement of objectives, or in listing imperative needs. It recognizes all that has been done in the past but rests its future on change in direction. Action will take place if and when a school studies the needs of its youth and then sets about sincerely to meet these needs. There are no tailor-made solutions. While there is general agreement on seven to ten imperative needs of secondary-school youth, there must not be any regimentation or hide-bound requirements that would deny each community of translating these generalizations into specifics which typify that community. Therefore, in setting forth the type of education for life adjustment I want to make it clear that there are both individual and group needs which must be met.

FIVE IMPERATIVES

There are several imperatives that secondary-school personnel must recognize in developing a Life Adjustment Program:

First, we must develop curriculums and other school activities which will possess holding power for *all* boys and girls of high-school age.

Second, we must produce a school environment that will be conducive to a happy and successful growth of all youth.

Third, we must organize our school offerings so that all boys and girls may make educational, social, moral, and physical growth.

Fourth, we must develop opportunities for the teachers, the pupils, and the parents to re-evaluate school offerings in the light of the real needs of youth in this ever-changing world and make changes when the need is apparent.

Fifth, we must provide educational experiences that will equip boys and girls to be better citizens, better workers, and better homemakers.

If we are going to meet these imperatives, the attack must be on a broad-front. Teacher-training institutions, teachers, administrators, and educational agencies—local, state, and national—must give co-operative and consistent support to the movement.

As I see it, education for life adjustment will have to be constructed around the developmental needs of the boys and girls in the community. This requires that a school system must study its community, must analyze the needs of the pupils, and must accumulate all the facts and data possible about the pupils.

Such a position goes far beyond the development of philosophy, aims, and objectives. When the staff has studied all the data possible, read widely in the field of meeting the imperative needs of youth, called expert advice for direction, and finally developed the purposes for education in the community, it is ready to start developing a curriculum which will produce the behavioral characteristics desired. After the school has determined the purposes for education and after it has set up the facilities that make possible the fulfilment of these purposes, I rather think it will move quite rapidly from theory to action.

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Subject-matter outcomes, or the accumulation of facts, become only means to an end in the life adjustment program. If these means change the attitudes, beliefs, and behavior of the pupils, life adjustment education is taking place. Schools are faced with the responsibility of so developing the youth that they become better citizens, better workmen, and better members in families.

Once a school embarks upon a life adjustment program and breaks through the traditional framework, possibilities of completely revamping the curriculum, the school schedule, the extracurricular program, the testing program, the requirements for graduation, the grading system, and the like become a reality. It is never easy to break away from traditional patterns of education. It has been truthfully said that educational philosophy, experimentation, and theory are years ahead of acceptance.

COMMON HEARINGS

The most perplexing question which arises to confound those who attempt to change the direction of the school offerings is whether it is possible to organize a program of common learnings that will be suitable for all pupils and at the same time will provide for the specialized needs of all youth.

Within the framework of every school there are opportunities to make communications, sciences, social studies, and mathematics more functional. In order that these areas meet life adjustment aims, subject matter and method must be given major importance. If these areas are to be included in the common learnings field. It is essential that plans and procedures be developed to that the needs both of the group and of the individual will be recognized and met for the common good of our democracy.

It might be well to include at this point a statement that, with few exceptions, the teachers have not been prepared to be concerned with the nature, individual differences, and learning problems of youth; but rather they have been taught to be concerned with organization, methodology, majors, minors, mastery of subject matter, rigid marking, accreditation, and other quantitative measuring rods that have little to do with the real purposes of education.

A school must determine what shall be required of all pupils as core subjects or common areas. After this has been determined, the faculty must plan, in so far as it is feasible, to offer work in specialized fields.

In order to know the vocations for which the pupils possess aptitude, they must have the opportunity to investigate the fields of their interest, as well as, examine the results of aptitude and interest tests and to receive guidance from their guidance teacher or counselor. One illustration must suffice to analyze one area in the common-learnings field and one segment of this area which might lead into a vocation for a few selected students.

If it is agreed that social studies is an area in the common-learnings field, then the life adjustment aim would be to teach citizenship, in which there would be less emphasis upon factual learning and mastery of subject matter

and more time devoted to critical thinking and to the solution of problems. If the pupils are to practice democracy as it is found in life, then opportunity for free speech, choice of problems to be solved, and participation in group living will have to be provided for every boy and girl in the classroom. How every boy and girl can be made to feel that he has a responsible part in the solving of all problems and be led to participate to the fullest extent of his ability is the problem of the methodologist. But, suffice it to say that all boys and girls, regardless of their station in life or their weaknesses in English, speech, mathematics, or any other field, will be citizens. Every vote they cast will help to determine the political and social trends of the future.

During the period of time spent in this area, evaluative measuring rods must be developed which can measure whether or not these boys and girls are developing critical minds and becoming problem solvers. Likewise, it must be determined whether or not they are acquiring and developing the traits essential to good citizenship in a democracy.

It seems to me that any alert teacher of American history and/or government could plan a citizenship course of study that would be functional and meet with adjustment aims. If we have within this class one or more persons who, through aptitude tests, show pronounced interests in law or political science, and if, after visits with their parents and their counselor, it is agreed that law would eventually be their profession, they should be advised to enroll in a specialized program of law. In a school of several hundred, enough students who had similar interests and aptitudes would no doubt be found, so that a class in commercial law could be formed. Competency in this specialized field would be the fundamental aim.

The same method of analyzation could be applied to communications with a specialized field in journalism and to science with the specialized field in biology, *etc.* Every specialized subject should be considered vocational in nature and should be treated largely in terms of developing saleable skills or enlarging the viewpoint of the pupils in some particular interest field. A school would be derelict in its duty not to offer as many vocational subjects as possible within the limitations of its staff, its physical equipment, and its financial ability.

There is general agreement that schools providing life adjustment education should include opportunities for all the pupils to receive training in family living, consumer economics, citizenship, leisure time, and work. Also, there is general agreement on skills that should be developed as a component part of a common learnings program. They are: ability to think critically, ability to express ideas, ability to work with and comprehend numbers, ability to enjoy the beautiful, ability to work and play co-operatively with others, and ability to use one's body for useful and productive work.

Outside of these common integrating experiences the special interests and aptitudes of the pupils should determine the many subjects which should be provided to meet the vocational and avocational needs of youth. These interests should be socially acceptable and represent true, basic interest. Many schools are now doing an excellent job meeting specialized interest particularly in the intellectual field, and a few others have splendid vocational departments in limited fields, but far too few schools offer subjects that are geared to the needs of youth neither going to college nor becoming skilled workmen.

Education for life adjustment demands the elimination of the system that requires pupils to elect subjects outside the common-learnings core for no other purpose than to accumulate enough credits to secure a diploma. All boys and girls must be given an opportunity to develop high competence in their special areas of interests. If schools are to measure up to the challenge of providing a better education for all of their future citizens, then they must provide for the common needs of the group as well as develop individuals to the limits of their capacity.

In general, then, education for life adjustment recognizes the inherent rights of all pupils to receive direction and guidance in learning experiences that will equip them to live democratically with satisfaction to themselves and profit to society as home members, workers, and citizens.

Group XII—Room 402

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How Can Economic Education and Understanding Be Developed in the Curriculum?

G. E. DAMON

ONE FOCAL POINT

ANY discussion of the teaching of economics should logically revolve around one focal point, a point which too often has been neglected in the curriculum planning of high-school administrators. That focal point may be expressed as the objective of making students economically competent.

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How well has this objective been realized? How many teachers would agree as to its meaning and its implications? And what is the most intelligent method of making sure that an adequate teaching job is done in the future? The answer to the first question is, unhappily, almost not at all. It is unfortunate, I think, that the word, "economics," must even appear. That word so often assumes that the traditional, theory approach to our economic picture be used, both to lay claim to academic, traditional respectability and to prove that the notes one took in college were of some use after passing the final examination. This is too often the picture that one still finds on the high-school level. Only in the past fifteen years have we seen the beginnings of an intelligent examination of the economic-knowledge needs of people.

ABUSING ECONOMIC HISTORY

Economic competency means many things to many people, and teachers are no exception to this statement. It is axiomatic that we tend to teach as we have been taught, and the change of understanding level from college to high school makes that teaching worse. A case in point is the mishandling of one of the basic rocks upon which modern economic thought is based. Adam Smith's book, *The Wealth of Nations*, has been used as the source of much of our modern thinking in the economic field. Since its publication in 1776, a thousand watered and otherwise diluted versions of his beliefs have been offered as original contributions to the field of economics. But not until the 1930's was the major crime committed in his name exposed. Smith aided somewhat the present separation of economic teaching into the four fields of production, exchange, distribution, and consumption. But in his main argument for the consideration of these fields, he stated that the sole aim and purpose of production was consumption. And ever since, economists have almost totally neglected the end product of all economic endeavor—consumption.

Every high-school principal must periodically examine his curriculum, if he is sincerely interested in having his school fit the actual needs of the students in his charge. It is true that he may hold his job without this periodical search if he has an apathetic community or a parental group which prefers to measure the offerings of a high school by the standards they dimly remember. But the trend in this Association is definitely in the other direction. We are beginning to realize that the student is by far the most important person in the school building, and the only subjects worth teaching are those which can be proven useful in the satisfaction of that student's wants and needs.

EVERYONE TEACHES ECONOMICS

Economic education of any kind must follow this pattern in order to justify room space in your building. It is true that the adherence to a theory

approach in economics has led to the teaching of useful economic matter in other fields. It will surprise some to learn that the most useful economic information and behavior is being taught today by teachers who are not economics teachers. The field has been unwittingly stolen by those who are purportedly teaching business education, social studies, and home economics. Not too far behind are the efforts of teachers of English, mathematics, agriculture, and the arts. Because this growth has been from demonstrated need; because the students themselves have asked the kinds of questions which have in turn stimulated this teaching, it is my belief that economic understanding should be taught as a logical part of the existing courses already in your curriculum. The inclusion of a separate course in economics can be a valuable asset, if taught from a student-interest standpoint.

How can your school do a good job? The first step is to help your teachers realize that they are already contributing much to economic education. You may ask them to tell you, and be properly surprised at what you get. A brief summary of the possibilities fits here; you may find them adequately described in the publications of the Consumer Education Study, which, as you know, have been actively sponsored and promoted by your Association.

English teachers are beginning to realize the possibilities of exchanging *Ivanhoe* and Chaucer, at least in part, for a study of the modern uses of the English language by business. The important by-product, an awareness of how to read and evaluate advertising, can well be the most important.

Mathematics instructors have found that the buying approach to problem solving is a familiar medium that holds the interest of students to a degree heretofore unattained. The problems involved in building and paying for a home could well be the vehicle for many weeks of intelligent mathematics learning.

Science teachers have learned to kill two or more birds with the proverbial stone. By using the commonly known mechanical and electrical appliances found in most homes, they can teach not only the basic principles involving heat, cold, expansion, insulation and the laws of electricity and gases, but teach also the intelligent purchase of the articles used. This saves you money since you are using the real articles as teaching media instead of the oftentimes more expensive laboratory equipment which has no other uses.

Fine arts classes are swinging closer to the everyday affairs of individuals, to their credit. To quote Dr. Wilhelms: "When we concern ourselves with the arrangement of pictures, do we also remember such details as where one may have a print framed, how much, or how to get a better fixture than the traditional nail in the wall?"

Music, an important part of your school and community life, might just as well teach what it knows about buying a radio as well as listening to one.

And the proper purchase and care of phonograph records should occupy legitimate time in the music classroom.

History classes have been less flexible than others, for the seemingly obvious reason that one cannot change history. But to gear history to man's search for economic betterment and to tie that search to our present hunting for the same goal seems more appropriate than the rattling of dates and the bones of dead generals. History and its effect on our present labor picture, the past efforts of people to obtain better food and more freedom—are there any important historical events which did not have an economic reason to justify their existence? History should be taught as man's attempt to solve his problems, and not taught as history.

Industrial arts teachers have a wealth of valuable economic information to give students, and only too often these teachers are forced to spend all of their time aiding students to manufacture small objects for the first and last time. The opportunity for other teaching should be capitalized upon—the appreciation of *good* workmanship, not necessarily their own, a knowledge of sound design and expected performance, the durability of finishes and joints, and the ability to make simple repairs. A furniture judging team should be a part of every woodworking class in high school. In this respect the agriculture teacher is far ahead—his students know what they will need to know.

These subjects can and do include this type of practical economics as a regular part of their planning. The greater use made of economics information in business education, social studies, and home economics classes have created an over-all pattern that apparently has left the teacher of economics out of the picture. This is not necessarily true.

ECONOMICS CLASSES STILL IMPORTANT

There is an important place for classes in economics as such, and it takes only a minor adjustment to make this class fit the combined efforts of other teachers. That adjustment is merely to begin instruction with the known problems of the students who are in the class, and finish, if it applies, with the theory that acts as a guide to future behavior. Just reverse the traditional approach of theory first and substantial facts later. It will help if the entire planning of the class is geared to *realia*. The real life problems of insurance and home financing, of clothing and education far outweigh in the mind of the student an abstract presentation of business cycles and the price index.

Economists must not lose sight of the fact that most of our economic activity is and will be buying and selling. And we sell our time and our skills only so that we may buy. A belief in this obvious theory necessarily demands the consumption approach to all economic study, either as an end in itself or as a natural and understandable medium for the learning of those three other economic fields which only support the most important—consumption.

How Can Economic Education and Understanding Be Developed in the Curriculum?

PAUL W. HARNLY

EVERY experienced principal is constantly besieged by pressure groups demanding blocks of time in which to instruct about their pet activities. Occasionally, this results in the introduction of some very worth-while unit of instruction. A sounder approach to curriculum improvement comes from within the teaching profession itself, through questioning and evaluation of what is now being taught and a careful study of what improvements can be made.

Recent emphasis for more economic education has arisen from both sources. Outside organizations, such as the Committee for Economic Development, the Twentieth Century Fund, the Brookings Institute, and our labor unions have pointed to the economic illiteracy of our people. Curriculum revision programs, both state and local, have recognized the close relationship between many problems of economic origin and the survival of our American way of life.

Every daily newspaper carries news stories which require a background of economic principles for their understanding. Right now, Congress is discussing the National Budget. Can we afford to spend from four to six more billion than we receive? Is it good to increase the national debt? What about repeal of some excise taxes? Are corporation profits too large? Should labor receive a larger share of the national income? How can we prevent another depression? Is the spending of billions under the Marshall Plan speeding European recovery? Should farm subsidies be continued on the present basis? Shall we extend Social Security benefits to all classes? What about Socialized Medicine?

These are only a few typical questions constantly presented by our press and radios. Most of our people are dreadfully confused. They have little background to form any objective, unbiased opinions. Too often the decision is based upon a selfish consideration as to what each one will get for himself, rather than a look at what is best in the long run for the greatest number. In many cases, people are swayed by political promises which could never be fulfilled.

The resignation of Edwin G. Nourse, Chairman of the President's Council of Economic Advisers, illustrates only one event which adds confusion. He is reported to have quit because of an irreconcilable difference with Leon Keyserling, another member of this Council, over interpretation of the economic situation and the proper policy to follow. He warned the President

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repeatedly that we cannot follow our present financial policies indefinitely without serious consequences. Keyserling, on the other hand, has told the President and his advisers that the size of the national debt makes no difference and by governmental manipulation we can all have incomes of \$12,000 by the close of the century.

VITALIZED TEACHING

The poor citizen finds very little in his schooling, either in high school or college, to assist him in reaching a decision about these things. Some economic information is being taught here and there in our schools. The American history courses required for graduation from most high schools touch on many economic problems. Courses in homemaking, industrial arts, and science include many topics which add some economic understanding. World history, world geography, community civics, international understanding, business law, salesmanship, and consumer education offer opportunities in this area, but all are taught in isolation, without much planning or effort to cover the entire field. Too frequently, these topics are taught as isolated facts without their application to life situations. This failure of textbooks and many teachers to come to grips with economic and social problems is due in part to their controversial nature and to the lack of economic education of the teacher.

The mathematics teacher fears no contradiction when he asserts that two plus two are four. Biology teachers today can teach that vaccination immunizes against smallpox without fear of much criticism. Science teachers know that there is general agreement concerning the findings of science and that the public will accept them regardless as to the assertions of politicians.

Not so in the field of economics! There is no such agreement among "economists" as exists among scientists. In looking at the same economic data, well-educated, sincere men arrive at opposite interpretations. Where classroom teachers have tried to present both points of view as objectively as possible, they sometimes have been subject to unjust criticism. They are subject to all the hazards found in teaching any controversial topics.

Within recent weeks I have interviewed a number of teacher applicants in the field of social studies. Few of them have had more than a three-hour introductory course in economics, usually taken on the sophomore level. Younger teachers are more likely to have had several courses than those graduating longer ago. It is my observation, based upon many visits to American history classes, that this lack of economic background results in a perfunctory treatment of those historical episodes which have application to present problems. Too often the discussion centers about such questions as, "When was the Federal Reserve Act passed? How many Federal Reserve Banks were created? Where were they located? What security is behind each Federal Reserve note?" without any very clear conception of how it has affected our lives. The popular and overworked true-false or multiple-choice test then centers attention upon the answers to questions like those just listed, without

developing any standards upon which to judge proposed solutions to present-day problems, rendering any solutions optional and equally plausible.

Illustrative of such teaching was a lesson observed some years ago in a class on problems of American democracy. The entire period was devoted to a discussion of almshouses in Pennsylvania. Although the class was in a Nebraska high school, there was no mention of the administration of poor relief in the local city, county, or state. Because Pennsylvania almshouses were treated in the text, the pupils were drilled on these provisions until they could pass the necessary examination.

When I asked the teacher whether his city had an almshouse, he was unable to answer. After some conversation concerning the objectives of this course and the practical values for boys and girls, he decided to make a thorough study of local relief. Several weeks later he reported of his activities. He had visited those responsible for administering local relief. They were delighted with his interest and volunteered to come to the school in order to talk to his classes about their specific problems. The pupils were greatly interested and worked much harder than on former assignments. This whole experience resulted in considerable growth for this teacher, who began to look around for places in other units where applications to local situations could be made. He was agreeably surprised at the willingness of local business and professional people, along with some labor representatives, to spend time with his pupils.

In this illustration, the teacher showed excellent judgment in trying to secure authentic source material. Fortunately, it was available in his own community. I occasionally visit a class where the teacher prides himself on his practical approach, but does not provide such background. He may hold current events discussions, based on *The American Observer*, *Scholastic*, or some similar magazine. Sometimes, panels of students repeat to each other what was printed in the news article. Frequently, comments of pupils are colored by their home background. The son of the physician asserts that socialized medicine would be bad; the son of the laborer wants the Taft-Hartley bill repealed; the daughter of the industrialist wants taxes lowered; and the discussion consists of assertions unsupported by any evidence. Such a lesson might be called a "'tis and 'taint" discussion, because there can be much emotional upset without an examination of the basic facts. Usually, the teacher knows little more about the matter than the pupils and does not lead them in a search for additional information. If there is to be better teaching about economic problems, some method of improving the economic education of our teachers must be found.

A WORKSHOP PLAN

One effort to increase this background for economic literacy has been the workshops of the Joint Council in Economic Education. I was privileged to attend the first experimental workshop, held at Riverdale on the Hudson, in

the summer of 1948. This workshop was sponsored jointly by the Committee for Economic Development and New York University. Dr. G. Derwood Baker, who is our chairman today, pioneered the idea of this workshop and acted as its director. Some seventy educators, representing twenty-three states, were enrolled. Represented were superintendents, principals, directors of curriculum, supervisors of social studies, classroom teachers from state and city systems, and the United States Office of Education. We roomed in the boys' dormitory of Riverdale Country School, ate in their dining hall, held our general meetings in the gymnasium, and used the classrooms for conference purposes.

The general plan of the workshop was as follows: In the morning at 9:15 we usually listened to an address by some outstanding economist, labor leader, or representative of the government. This was followed by a general question-and-answer period. From 11:00 to 12:00, we held group meetings for more intensive study of the problems outlined at the general meeting. The evening meetings were also devoted to similar presentations. In the afternoons, we organized committees for a careful study of the implications for education. One group worked on curriculum materials, another on instructional procedures, while another canvassed the field of visual aids which might be available.

I would like to mention just a few of the men who addressed our group. Morris Livingston is the chief statistician for the Department of Commerce. He addressed two general sessions, telling us about the various ways in which the government is trying to secure objective information concerning income and the share of labor, capital, and the government. Dean Mason, of the Harvard School of Business Administration, talked on the international situation. He was on the American staff during the foreign ministers' conference, where he sat across from Molotov for eight weeks. Beardsley Ruml, who had just returned the week previous from a trip to Europe and who has been the head of the New York Federal Reserve Bank, talked to us about taxation. Dr. Brown, of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, who was at that time arbitrating a dispute between one of the large eastern unions and a business concern, spoke on labor and management relations. Dr. Norris, chairman of the President's committee of economic advisers, spent two days with us. Corwin Edwards, Director of the Bureau of Industrial Economics of the Federal Trade Commission, who has had an important part in the anti-trust proceedings, emphasized the effect of monopolies. We also heard two representatives from labor. Sol Barkin, representative of the C.I.O., is the traditional, two-fisted, hard-hitting, pugnacious type of labor leader. Mark Starr, of the Ladies' Garment Workers of New York, who was asked to give the Ingliss lecture at Harvard University several years ago, represented another type of labor leader. Dr. A. D. H. Kaplan, of the Brookings Institute in Washington, spent the entire three weeks with us.

We were indeed fortunate to listen to the presentations of these men, ask questions of them, and to visit informally with them. No one could participate in these experiences without being much better prepared to give economic instruction or supervise others in this field. Of course, it would be impossible to send men of this standing to many such workshops to reach any considerable number of our social studies teachers. But three more were held last summer, building on the experience of 1948. We hope that more will be organized for the summer of 1950.

Out of this Riverdale experience came the organization of the Joint Council on Economic Education, with headquarters at 25 Press Building, 32 Washington Place, New York 3, New York. Those of you who are interested in receiving descriptive literature or learning about future workshops should write to this address.

Lack of uniform agreement in economic application was very apparent at Riverdale, but the arguments favoring the various positions were presented for our consideration. We were told frankly where the real issues lie; as we listened to both sides, it became more apparent why it is difficult to find solution to our economic problems and why teachers frequently are timid in presenting what they have learned.

Many new conceptions about business and industry, not usually found in textbooks, were presented at Riverdale. For example, I feel certain that, if you were asked what has contributed most to American productive capacity, you would be likely to reply, "our great natural resources." One speaker at this workshop placed natural resources fourth, with our application of power and machines as the most important item. Man without machines or power is limited to what he can accomplish with his naked hands. The Chinese coolie in building a landing field breaks the rocks by hand and carries them in baskets on his head. We use bulldozers, rock crushers, and cement mixers. Behind every worker in America is an investment of \$6,500 in power, tools, and machinery. Our automatic factory processes and know-how are the envy of the entire world.

I doubt whether many American history teachers, in presenting the topic about the Industrial Revolution, emphasize our reliance upon this industrial plant and how we came to have it. Did you ever consider the simple illustration of a beauty operator working for another, who aspires to owning her own shop; but she does not have the capital with which to purchase the equipment? Being ambitious, she begins to save. She cuts down on picture shows, does not purchase a new fur coat, stays at home during her vacation, and in many similar ways saves enough until she can go to a banker with enough capital so he will lend her the remainder—remember that the money loaned by the banker is also the savings of people. Multiply this simple story and you have the process by which America has developed to be an industrial giant. Russia still lacks much of this equipment, but is working hard to

catch us. Russia has *compulsory savings* from slave labor and a low standard of living. She is an uncompromising exponent of a planned socialistic economy.

Much of the controversy between capital and labor centers around the development of our industrial capacity. How much shall management save for plant expansion and replacement of worn-out equipment? If we raise wages without increasing prices to the consumer, are we likely to destroy our capacity to produce? Just where is that balance that desirable? Is there danger of killing the goose which lays the golden egg?

So far, I have shown that a lack of economic background of teachers has prevented them from providing very effective instruction. This deficiency is also accentuated by lack of agreement among economists and politicians as to which point-of-view is sound. This lack of agreement places teaching of these things in the area of controversial issues.

What can the school do about this?

We can use our influence to improve the economic background of teachers. The Joint Council on Economic Education should be encouraged to organize more workshops of the type described here. Universities, colleges, and teacher-education institutions should be asked to organize courses in their summer schools. Our pattern of training for social studies teaching seems to need some attention, placing less emphasis upon courses in history and more attention on economics and social problems.

IN-SERVICE TRAINING

But we cannot wait for colleges and universities to change their pattern of training. It would take too long to rely upon teacher-training institutions to provide the necessary economic background. There must be in-service work with teachers. More and more schools are assuming responsibility for the in-service growth of their teachers. Most larger systems have on-going curriculum revisions in progress, with committees of teachers working on specific problems. In many state departments of education, we find directors and supervisors of curriculum who are attempting to co-ordinate the work in various communities. Some school systems have found one or two problems of common concern to many teachers and have organized to solve them. In all such in-service programs there are many opportunities for developing more economic instruction. A few specific suggestions of technique or devices recommended by teachers and administrators are given here:

1. Bring in outside consultants for a series of meetings on economic education
2. Organize a series of faculty meetings built around teachers' own economic problems such as group insurance, hospitalization, and credit unions
3. Encourage groups of teachers to organize for the study of economic problems and economic education
4. Organize workshops for more intensive work
5. Participate with pupils, on an appropriate level, in the study of some pressing problem such as inflation, labor relations, or housing
6. Engage in and make use of local community surveys of various kinds

7. Encourage groups of teachers to study economic problems at some college or university summer session
8. Encourage teachers to work during the summer in industry or business to secure first-hand information
9. Organize an experimental center with the assistance of the Joint Council on Economic Education or a local university or teachers' college
10. Tie economic education in with the curriculum revision program in your school system
11. Make economic education an important part of general education, the core curriculum, etc.
12. Establish a local pilot project
13. Release selected teachers from a part of their teaching assignment to do intensive work on these problems.

The utilization of these in-service suggestions cannot be left to chance. It requires careful planning and persistent leadership to secure results. What the principal or superintendent does about it is crucial. Real in-service growth requires a positive atmosphere. Teachers will not assume much initiative if the administration is passive or negative. Many fine conscientious teachers covet leadership which helps them organize to solve their problems.

What a principal should do depends largely upon his local situation. Those principals who already have committees of teachers working on curriculum problems need only place more emphasis upon economic instruction. Principals of schools without any organized in-service program would do well to try one or more of the techniques just listed. Each suggestion has been used successfully in one or more schools.

Because American history is required for graduation in most of our states, another place to begin is to select certain important present problems and study their historical background and their origin and development. An example is found in the current debate over reciprocal trade agreements. The study of history should also lend perspective in understanding the interdependence of economic factors with political, international, and even moral and ethical considerations. American history should develop some standards of value needed in thinking about economic matters and an awareness of trends in economic affairs.

Ability to evaluate critically all forms of propaganda is especially important in economic matters. Nothing is more certain than that pupils will spend their lives under constant pressure from all manner of propaganda. Will they learn to distinguish between facts and opinions? Will they establish habits of careful sifting of evidence? The answer is partly to be found in the kind of classroom experiences which they have. Teachers should be warned that the mere mastery of economic theory has minor importance beside the ability to make critical evaluation of economic propaganda.

Some schools have been developing common learnings courses. They have tried to help youth to identify their own problems and focus the classroom work on solving them. Rather than adding several new subjects with-

out eliminating anything, advocates of common learnings have tried to include the most important topics and experiences helpful to the pupils. Most of these programs are in the experimental stage where much work still remains to be done. Unless a school is already committed to such a program, it is not recommended as a starting-place for increasing economic instruction.

It has been impossible in the time at my disposal to give any exhaustive treatment of this topic. If economic illiteracy is to decrease, it will require our best leadership and the initiative of our most forward-looking teachers. Tried and tested in-service improvement devices are available for application in developing economic education. Some workshops and college courses can provide the background education for our teachers. If we, as principals, are aware of the need and apply what we know about educational improvement, I am certain that we can develop a generation of high-school graduates better fitted to cope with economic and social problems of our complex civilization.

Group XIII—West Promenade

CHAIRMAN: *George H. Gilbert*, Principal, Lower Merion Senior High School, Ardmore, Pennsylvania.

INTERROGATORS AND CONSULTANTS:

George C. Marsden, Principal, Milton High School, Milton, Massachusetts.

John O. Fry, Principal, Hamilton High School, Hamilton, Ohio.

What About Articulation of the Secondary School and College?

PAUL G. BULGER

AN articulated unit in railroad terminology, as I understand it, pertains to the joining of two cars in such a way as to make the smoothest co-operation of the two cars and still provide flexibility. This, it seems to me, is the kind of articulation we would like to have between the secondary school and the college. In fact, this whole problem of articulation has lately given greater concern than it warrants in relation to the over-all picture of secondary and college education. This may seem to many of you an ostrich-like viewpoint—very close to the ground; in fact—under the ground with eyes blinded by the sand. For, as we all know, many secondary schools have claimed that articulation, or its lack, has been a roadblock in the establishment of secondary-school curricula. In these claims, it is pointed out that the high school has planned its curriculum around college entrance requirements. This has been traditionally true, but less and less do we hear the question, "Is he college material?"

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Rather, as we see the report of the President's Commission on Higher Education that 49 percent of the boys and girls between 18 and 19 years of age have the ability to complete the first two years of college and 32 per cent of youth between 20 and 21 years have the ability to complete a four-year college course, the colleges are asking themselves and others, "What can we do to make changes in our curricula to meet the needs of this greater group?" We are all familiar with the Harvard Report, the Columbia Plan, the Princeton Plan, and others as mileposts of the recognition of a new era in college programs.

What we are talking about today is the 20 per cent of the high-school graduates who go on to college. What the President's Commission is talking about is the large group of youth between 18 and 19, and we need to give careful thought to this larger group. However, whether the figure is 20 per cent or 49 per cent, it is the individual boy or girl that is involved, and individuals are, in this country at least, very, very important.

Perhaps many of you are not directly concerned about this problem of articulation because you have the condition of compulsory acceptance of qualified high-school graduates, and thus don't have an extreme admission problem. Perhaps, also, you have perfect understanding between the secondary school and college in your section of the country. President Conant of Harvard, in raising this same question a few years ago, told the story of the World Peace Exhibit in London where they had placed a lion and a lamb in the same cage so that the teachers of London could bring the children to see how animals could live in peace and harmony. One day one of the teachers, when the children weren't listening, spoke to the keeper of the exhibit, saying, "It is marvelous, but frankly, how do you arrange to have a lion and a lamb lie down together in the same cage?" The keeper said, "Well, to be perfectly frank, very now and then we must renew the lamb."

THE MICHIGAN AND OTHER STATE PLANS

As stated before, there must be understanding and mutual trust between the secondary-school and college personnel. Neither party wants a lowering of standards for admission to colleges, but we all do want a wider interpretation of college entrance requirements to take into consideration much more than the traditional language-science-mathematics sequence. Of course, we need in this country persons with all abilities and interests. Our colleges should be geared to the curricula of our secondary schools. In determining the curricula of both the secondary school and college, we should seek aid and advice from all levels of educational services and leadership.

There is evidence that there is a growing appreciation of the problem of admission to colleges from the high-school. About three-years ago a committee consisting of members of the Michigan State Education Department, the Michigan Secondary-School Principals' Association, and representatives of the colleges drew up a plan known as the Michigan High School and College

Agreement. The Agreement states that any high school which meets certain requirements set by the Committee may recommend graduates for admission to college without regard of the pattern of subjects taken in high school. In turn, the colleges agree to accept or reject such graduates on the basis of their high-school recommendations and records rather than the pattern of subjects taken in high school. This has taken pressure, either expressed or imagined, off the Michigan high schools to set up programs to study without reference to the college entrance requirements regarding specific high-school courses. There have been agreements as to what the high schools should provide in the way of guidance and testing facilities, personnel, in-service education, and curriculum study.

This plan and modifications of the plan in such states as Oregon, Washington, Illinois, and California give promise of better articulation on the level of high-school curriculum development and admission to college.

I mentioned expressed or imagined barriers to college entrance for high-school graduates. When we look at these figures: In 1949 "the nation's universities and colleges granted approximately 430,000 degrees. . . It was estimated that 375,000 bachelor's or first professional degrees were granted. . . an increase of 38 per cent over the previous year. . . and 55,000 advanced degrees" (*World Almanac, 1950*, p. 562) we realized that at least for these boys and girls there has been some degree of articulation. G. Robert Koopman of Michigan lists articulation as the last of four barriers to the new curriculum. (NASSP Bulletin, Vol. 33, Apr. 1949, No. 162).

COLLEGE ADMISSION REQUIREMENTS BECOMING BROADER

An examination of about twenty-five catalogs of colleges spread over the nation indicates, to me at least, that the requirements for admission are becoming broader and take into consideration many other factors than the sequence of subjects studied and the marks received.

We have noticed a wider use by the college admissions offices of test scores on such examinations as the College Board Examination, the General Educational Development tests, and the American Council on Education tests. The Educational Testing Service reported recently that, during an eighteen month period, 750,000 persons in the United States took tests for admission to colleges, schools, and service academies. However, it is the opinion of many college officers that test scores will not replace the high-school transcript. And speaking of transcripts, many colleges believe that better service to the high schools and students could be given if all high schools would use the *Secondary-School Record* transcript blank adopted by our National Association of Secondary-School Principals.

SECONDARY-SCHOOL AND COLLEGE CO-OPERATION

However, with the use of the best of paper devices, it is difficult to anticipate college success or failure of the individual candidate. The factor of drive

or motivation of a particular student has a great deal to do with his progress in any given institution. The need for more personal contact between the college admission offices, the secondary-school guidance personnel, and the prospective college student and his parents is great. We should start early in the preparatory schools to help students choose general areas of educational objectives. The college should make very clear to all concerned the purposes of the particular colleges, the entrance requirements, and the procedures and the services available after admission. In New York State the necessity for close personal contact between the State Teachers' Colleges and the high schools in the field of recruitment and admissions was recognized by the appointment in 1947 of a co-ordinator of field services in each of the eleven teachers' colleges. From personally working as a co-ordinator responsible for the admissions program of one of the colleges, I have seen the results of this close personal contact between the college and the secondary school in this area of selection of prospective teachers. It is done by really going in to the preparatory schools and personally working with the boy or girl, the parents, and the guidance officers. You can get some of the personal motivation back of individual applications for admission, and you can get it early. Also, and very important, you can get reactions and comments of faculty and staff as to character traits and potentialities of the different candidates. This type of personal college representative is more and more being used and could well be extended to insure better articulation of the secondary school and college.

Other important means of bringing the colleges and high schools closer are such activities as career days; "College Night" programs; visitation of students to colleges and college personnel to high schools; the college catalogues; statements on scholarships, grants and aids; statements on placement opportunities; pictorial brochures of campus life; and motion pictures with sound and color. As one of my correspondents put it in commenting about the need of better communications and understanding between schools and colleges: "We know that good athletes with or without good records, dependent upon the institution, are welcome applicants. How about other students?" Now, it can't be that bad, but it certainly can be answered that we should get information and understanding to the prospective college student. As one high-school girl said: "In choosing a college you have to know more about it than just the number of men enrolled," although that's important, too! Our obligations is to give guidance to all who are interested in higher education and perhaps we can save some heartbreak by helping to guide some students away from college toward something better for that particular student.

Guidance service should not stop in the school prior to admission to college. It should be a continuous process. Talk with many college students and they will tell you that they should have had more social, psychological, and vocational guidance in high school; more opportunities to learn how to study,

to use the library, to be on their own—a senior room, for example; in general, the transition between high school and college made easier.

These same college students will tell you that more attention should be given to guidance in college, especially in the freshman year. Many colleges have freshman weeks which serve as orientation periods, freshman faculty advisers, cumulative records, college psychological counseling, placement tests, health services, and other personnel services that are primarily interested in the individual student. Of course, as with any guidance program, to make it work a school or college must have a guidance conscious faculty and staff.

Moreover, to make the guidance service really effective, the colleges must communicate with the preparatory schools and parents. The lack of articulation at this point is surprising. Yet, when you do hear of instances of co-operation, the power then is terrific in sense of security given, the good feelings engendered, and in the guidance possibilities presented. It is a relatively simple matter to let the high school know of the acceptance or rejection of a candidate, or to report the progress of the student in college. In the case of rejection of a candidate, the college has some obligation to give the student help in finding his way. It's not only good guidance, but it's good public relations!

The increased attention being paid to the education of college teachers should help the whole program of college guidance and the difficult transition period of switching from high-school methodology.

In general then, colleges should extend their admission services and provide better guidance facilities, which when combined with a close personal relationship with the secondary schools will do much to insure an articulated unit.

From the direction of the high schools comes news of their desire to institute curriculum reform to meet the needs of the youth of America. Many schools over the country are doing the college entrance program and many other programs. It can be done. One way of getting some help is to work with your teachers' college in your area. Most of the teachers' colleges can provide consultant services, research materials, and in some cases physical facilities for the mutual benefit of school and college. Study councils which are connected with the teachers' college or school of education are being developed in several areas of the country to facilitate this phase of articulation of high school and college.

There are special service areas in which the secondary schools and colleges can and are co-operating. There are colleges that have established speech clinics, circulating film libraries, extension courses, concert series, short courses, panel discussions, and other well known devices for articulation. Should we extend them?

We have considered at some length—and speaking of length, I can imagine that you agree that there is a great deal of truth in the old mechanical law:

"The longer the spoke, the greater the tire."—the problem of admission to college as a place for better articulation and the concept of counseling service for youth from high school through college as a means to better articulation. We have said that there are some problems of curriculum adjustments to prevent college entrance requirements from unduly influencing the secondary-school curriculum. There are schools where good articulation is noted and should be encouraged. The only way to work together, secondary school and college, is to get together. What about it?

What About Articulation of Secondary School and College?

VICTOR M. HOUSTON

THE problem of the articulation of the secondary school and the college in Illinois is, in general, the same as elsewhere; namely, the problem of how to bring about an understanding on the part of the leaders at both levels of education of the purposes of each level and how to clarify and redefine what each can rightfully expect of the other. The problem may, however, vary in intensity from one state to another. In Illinois, for example, there are thirty-nine four-year colleges and universities, including several large universities in which there are different entrance requirements in the different curricula. In addition, there are thirty-five professional and technical schools, ten teachers colleges and normal schools, and at least seventeen junior colleges, making the total number of higher institutions in excess of one hundred.¹

Each of these higher institutions has established entrance requirements that seem reasonable to the persons charged with that responsibility in each institution in view of the purposes of the particular institution as they conceive them. As a result, entrance requirements in Illinois colleges vary widely. A common pattern consists of defining entrance requirements in terms of specific courses or sequences of courses. High-school graduates seeking admission to several colleges in Illinois are required to present three majors or two majors and two minors² of credit in certain specified fields, usually English, foreign languages, mathematics, science, and social studies. The student may submit, for entrance, credit in fields such as agriculture, art, business education, home economics, industrial arts, music, physical education, and safety education *only if* his credits in these fields are *in addition to* his credits in the specified sequences. Some colleges specify that only a minimum number of units of

¹ Federal Security Agency, Office of Education, *Education Directory, Part 3, Higher Education*, United States Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C., 1948. Pp. 34-42.

² A major is defined as three units of credit in one field; a minor is two units of credit in one field.

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credits (usually five) in "noncollege preparatory" subjects will be accepted to meet admission requirements. These requirements have often resulted in the practice of subterfuge on the part of secondary-school people wherein instruction in "home and family relationships," "safety education," elementary psychology, and other commonly accepted needs of youth have been given "respectable" labels. On the other hand, a few colleges specify merely that the student who is seeking admission be a graduate of an accredited high school.

The fact that a student has met these requirements in terms of specific courses gives neither the college nor the secondary school—nor even the student—an adequate understanding of how well he possesses the qualifications necessary for successful work in college. In spite of, or perhaps symptomatic of, the wide differences in college entrance requirements, college authorities are still dissatisfied with the abilities of high-school graduates to do creditable work in college.

EARLY EFFORTS

Illinois has 900 high schools—public, private, and parochial—varying in enrollment from less than 50 to more than 5,000 pupils. These high schools are to be found in all types of communities, large and small, wealthy and poor, rural and urban, agricultural and industrial, conservative and progressive. The teachers and administrators in the secondary schools of Illinois are coming to believe that the secondary school must serve *all* youth of secondary-school age. And for years they have been questioning the extent to which this can be done and, at the same time, meet the pressure of colleges, of parents, and of students to provide instruction in the courses required for admission to college. The problem is increasingly difficult in view of the wide variation in college entrance requirements.

It would seem that the facts just related concerning the specificity of and wide variation in college entrance requirements, the large number of small high schools, the wide range of differences in the communities in which the high schools are located, and the dissatisfaction of colleges over the abilities of high-school graduates to do college work successfully would have led to a concerted, co-operative attack upon the problem. This, however, was not the case. No plan for co-operative action was proposed until the Illinois Secondary-School Program was launched.

As early as 1935, the Executive Committee of the Illinois Secondary-School Principals' Association considered means of initiating constructive work on curriculum problems in the secondary schools of Illinois. The following year, work was begun by the Curriculum Committee of the Illinois Secondary-School Principals' Association. "For eleven years the principals . . . tried seriously to develop an organized curriculum program but with relatively little success. Meanwhile, teachers of English, the social studies, agriculture, physical education, and others had been working conscientiously, but independently, on curriculum programs. The teachers of the various

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instructional areas and the administrators were not working together, each area was an entity unto itself. And what is just as serious, they were not working, except in isolated local school districts in an organized manner with interested lay groups, such as agriculture, labor, and industry."²

THE ISSCP AND ITS PURPOSE

As a result of these efforts, Vernon L. Nickell, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, launched the Illinois Secondary-School Curriculum Program (hereinafter referred to as the ISSCP) on September 1, 1947. The ISSCP is also sponsored by colleges and universities, the Illinois Secondary-School Principals' Association, and thirty-two other state-wide professional and lay organizations. Its policies are formulated by a Steering Committee composed of one or more representatives of each of the sponsoring organizations.

The major purposes of the ISSCP are:

- a. To co-ordinate on a state-wide level and on a local school level the work of all of the persons and groups who are, or who should be, interested in improving the high-school curriculum
- b. To sponsor research studies basic to curriculum work
- c. To encourage developmental (experimental) programs
- d. To conduct workshops for principals and teachers
- e. To prepare and distribute publications
- f. To establish improved relations between secondary schools and higher institutions.

The extent to which the accomplishment of each of these purposes relates to the problem of the articulation of the secondary school and the college, is readily discernible. College authorities are among those interested in improving the high-school curriculum. Research studies basic to curriculum work must obviously deal with, among other things, who does not finish high school and why, who does not go to college and why, and the extent to which young people feel that the high school has met their needs. Developmental (experimental) curriculum projects may result in changing course offerings, even to the point of leaving little place in the high-school curriculum for certain subjects now required for entrance to college. Workshops for principals and teachers will inevitably, if worthy of the time spent, cause participants to question the *status quo* and seek to improve present practices. Publications, which set forth the basic assumptions of a state-wide program, disseminate the methods and findings of research studies, and suggest workable approaches to curriculum revision, will, of course, be of interest to college authorities. The establishing of improved relations between secondary schools and colleges is necessary in order to implement the other purposes of the ISSCP.

² Sanford, Charles W., "Challenging Developments in the Illinois Secondary-School Curriculum Program," *The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, Volume 33, Number 162, April, 1949. P. 57

To establish improved relations between the secondary schools and colleges in Illinois, the Steering Committee of the ISSCP authorized the appointment of a Committee on Relations with Higher Institutions.⁴ Following are excerpts from the report of the Committee:

“ . . . THE PROBLEM

“The specification by the colleges of certain high-school courses to be taken by all students seeking college entrance sets definite limitations to curriculum revision. If a considerable block of courses must be retained in the high school to provide for the preparation of students who hope to go to college, the opportunity to re-examine the total high-school curriculum and to replan the program in terms of the needs of all high-school youth is thereby curtailed. For example, school administrators and teachers frequently mention the restrictive effect on their revision of the curriculum of the specification by some of the colleges that only high-school majors and minors in English, foreign language, mathematics, science, and social studies will be counted for admission. The effect of such college entrance specifications is particularly limiting for smaller schools which comprise the great majority of Illinois high schools. The smaller schools cannot afford to provide a large number of courses; hence, when courses are specifically required for college entrance, most of them must also be the courses taken by students not going to college because the high school cannot afford many alternative courses for noncollege-bound youth.

“The problem is equally serious when examined from the viewpoint of the college. Colleges have specific purposes to achieve; they may reasonably expect the secondary schools to develop in students prior to graduation the competencies that will enable them to achieve those purposes. Furthermore, they have a right to require of the secondary school evidence of the student's fitness for the particular program of higher education which he wishes to pursue. In no case should the college be expected to establish programs at a pre-college level in order to develop in students those learnings that make for success in college. Questions which naturally arise are: What type of secondary-school experience is adequate preparation for college? How can secondary-school and college people know when a student is ready for a particular type of college course? What kinds of evidence shall be submitted?

“It seemed clear, therefore, to the Committee that the problem it faced was to devise a recommendation regarding college entrance requirements which would enable the colleges to obtain qualified students without, at the

⁴ This Committee consists of: Ralph W. Tyler, Dean, Division of Social Sciences, University of Chicago, *Chairman*; Rev. Father F. P. Blecke, Diocesan Superintendent of Schools, Diocese of Peoria; Darrell R. Blodgett, Superintendent of Schools, Jacksonville; C. C. Byerly, First Assistant Superintendent, Office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction, State of Illinois; Arthur W. Clevenger, Professor of Education, University of Illinois; Victory M. Houston, Associate Director, Illinois Secondary-School Curriculum Program and Principal, University High School, Illinois State Normal University, Normal (on leave 1949-1950); H. Gary Hudson, President, Illinois College, Jacksonville; and James M. Hughes, Dean, School of Education, Northwestern University, Evanston.

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same time, specifying the content of the high-school curriculum. If such a recommendation could be devised, the college interests could thereby be protected while the schools would have much greater area for exploration, experimentation, and ultimate improvement in the high-school curriculum."⁵

THE FINDINGS OF RESEARCH STUDIES OF THE PROBLEM⁶

The Committee on Relations with Higher Institutions surveyed the research on this problem and included summaries of six of the most significant studies.

1. In 1933, the National Survey of Secondary Education reported that: "The maze of admission criteria used at present by the higher institutions demonstrates the fact that either there are no admittedly superior standards of admission or the superiority of certain ones has been accepted on the basis of studies of isolated cases. The problem of articulation does not center and is not to be solved at the point of transition from the secondary school to college. It is more far-reaching than that. A great deal of the expensive research now being carried on to determine what entrance criteria are most effective or what subjects should be required might well be turned to the task of solving the articulation problem at its source. That is to say, the abilities, habits, characteristics, interests, health, etc. of pupils ought to be studied during their secondary-school careers, and, on the basis of the determined relationships of these to subsequent scholastic success, pupils should be guided into or directed away from the higher institutions."⁷
2. H. H. Remmers and O. C. Trimble in their study of accreditation stated that: "In view of the data presented, and further in view of the abundantly available data on individual differences on all measured traits and characteristics, it is pertinent to raise the question of whether accrediting should be that of schools or whether it should be that of accrediting individual students in terms of measured educational outcomes . . . For specific purposes of accrediting, such as college entrance, there is available a vast amount of evidence that graduation from a 'standard' high school in which the approved curriculum was pursued is in itself no guarantee that the high-school graduate will be able to succeed in college . . ."⁸
3. Francis F. Bradshaw summarized a great amount of research on the problem of admissions policies and procedures and concluded that: "Admissions policies and procedures have, in general, been adopted mainly through analogy, argument, tradition, competition, imitation, and logrolling of vested interests rather than through modification and evaluation under critical research conditions. . . . Admissions standards are increasingly being defined in terms of

⁵ Steering Committee, Illinois Secondary-School Curriculum Program, *New College Admission Requirements Recommended*. Circular Series A, No. 51, Illinois Secondary-School Curriculum Program Bulletin No. 9, Office of the State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Springfield, Illinois, February, 1950 (in press).

⁶ This paper contains only portions of the excerpts included in the Committee Report; hence, the footnotes refer directly to the research studies.

⁷ Brammell, P. Roy, "Articulation of High School and College," Bulletin 1932, No. 17, *National Survey of Secondary Education*, Monograph No. 10, U. S. Office of Education, Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C., 1933, P. 95.

⁸ Remmers, H. H., and Trimble, O. C., "Measures of Educational Outcomes versus Standards of Institutional Machinery at High-School Accrediting Criteria," *Purdue University Studies in Higher Education*, Volume XXII, March, 1933, P. 37.

⁹ Bradshaw, Francis F., "Admissions Procedures," *Colleges and Universities—VIII. Student Personnel Work, Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, 1941. P. 251.

specific knowledge and skill and specific traits directly measured instead of time spent under standard conditions in a secondary school."¹⁰

4. Harl R. Douglass reported in 1938 that: "We are very much concerned today by the grave doubts and suspicions which the results of careful experimentation throw upon what we had assumed to be axiomatic. Study after study . . . seem uniformly to demonstrate that for any given degree of intelligence and industry no subject or group of subjects possess any worth-while superior preparatory value. Students who have had little or no mathematics or foreign language, for example, make practically as high a scholastic average as those of equal intelligence who have had more work in those fields, and those students who have several years' credit in vocational subjects do as well as those of equal intelligence with none. . . . And what is more disconcerting is that the number of credits earned in the preferred fields is correlated far less with the average mark in college than is the score on a forty-minute mental test. A mental test, in turn, is definitely less closely correlated with the average college mark than is the average high-school mark. How then is the high school to serve best its college-going constituency if not by steering them into college preparatory subjects? . . . To take the negative aspects first, students apparently are not prepared best for college work by either of the following means: (1) Having them take certain college preparatory subjects or (2) Coaching them for college entrance examinations. Apparently preparation for college is better served by appropriate methods and objectives of teaching than by the type of subject matter."¹¹

5. R. D. Collmann and C. Jorgenson of Australia summarized the results of studies in the prediction of college success and concluded that: "Strangely enough it is found that under certain conditions one of these (intelligence) tests occupying from thirty minutes to an hour may predict success in school subjects several years hence as well as, or even better than, a test in the subjects themselves even though the examination consumes several hours."¹²

6. The purposes of the Commission on the Relation of School and College were: (1) To establish a relationship between school and college that would permit and encourage reconstruction in the secondary school, (2) To find, through exploration and experimentation, how the high school in the United States can serve youth more effectively."¹³ The generalized findings of the Study follow:

"First, the assumption that preparation for the liberal arts college depends upon the study of certain prescribed subjects in the secondary school is no longer tenable . . . The conclusion must be drawn, therefore, that the assumption upon which school and college relations have been based in the past must be abandoned. . . . To move ahead schools must have encouragement from colleges. To give that encouragement colleges must abandon their present admissions policy. . . . The second major implication of the results of the Eight-Year Study is that secondary schools can be trusted with a greater measure of freedom than college requirements now permit . . ."¹⁴

¹⁰ *Ibid.*, p. 252.

¹¹ Douglass, Harl R., "The College's Interest in the Secondary School," *Educational Record*, 20:229-40, April, 1939. Pp. 232-233.

¹² Collmann, R. D., and Jorgenson, C., *Three Studies in the Prediction of Scholastic Success*, Melbourne University Press, Melbourne, Australia, 1935. Foreword, p. 5.

¹³ Aikin, Wilford M., *Adventure in American Education, Volume I, The Story of the Eight-Year Study*, Harper and Brothers, New York, 1942. P. 116.

¹⁴ *Ibid.*, pp. 118-124.

The Report of the ISSCP Committee on Relations with Higher Institutions continues as follows:

"Numerous other studies, many of them related to the problems of particular colleges or particular types of higher institutions, have been conducted during the past fifteen years. All of them show that students can develop the competencies necessary to carry on college work by taking many types of courses and content. In fact, no correlation was found between the subjects taken by a student in high school and his success in college. His competence as a student was more closely related to his development of intellectual interests, skill in reading, writing, and other study techniques and effective work habits. This, of course, points to the desirability for establishing a high order of co-operation between colleges and secondary schools.

" . . . GUIDING PRINCIPLES AND RECOMMENDATIONS

"A. *Guiding Principles*

As a basis for developing proposals for solving the problem, certain principles were agreed upon regarding the respective responsibilities of the secondary school and the college. These were:

- "1. The American public high school has the responsibility to develop and administer an educational program which will provide for the education of all youth, including both those who go on to college and those who do not.
- "2. With limited resources, the high school's first responsibility is to provide education of general value to all its students, rather than to provide for the specialized needs of parts of the student body when the latter effort is taken at the expense of a good program of general education.
- "3. The colleges and universities bear the responsibility of continuing the general education of high-school graduates and of providing for various specialized needs appropriate for post high-school instruction.
- "4. Since the high school carries the responsibility for educating all youth, it, and not the college or university, has the responsibility of specifying the content of the high-school curriculum. The colleges and universities have an interest in obtaining competent students from the high school, and the high schools need to consider the development of competent students as one of their functions.
- "5. The high school has the responsibility of providing colleges and universities with information about its students and in doing so enable these institutions to select prospective students wisely.

"B. *Recommendations*

In the light of these principles, it is recommended that the colleges adopt admission policies which do not specify the courses the students are to

take in high school, but specify the kinds of competence to be required of entering students. There has been extensive research on the kinds of competence which are good predictors of college success. The following five criteria can be used by a college or university to provide the best prediction of the probable success of the student in college work:

- "1. Score on a scholastic aptitude test
- "2. Score on a test of critical reading
- "3. Score on a test of writing skill
- "4. Score on a simple mathematical test
- "5. Evidence that the student has an intellectual interest and some effective study habits as shown by his having taken at least two years of work in one field in high school in which his grades were better than average.

"It is recommended that the foregoing criteria be used for admission to general college work in place of any other set of entrance requirements. For specialized curricula, which begin in the freshman year in college like engineering, certain specified competencies on the part of high-school graduates may be required, such as competence in mathematics for engineering. For such cases, the Committee recommends the adoption of the following paragraph:

"Secondary schools are urged to provide means for high-school students to acquire prior to graduation the competencies demanded for successful work in specialized programs in institutions of higher learning, such competencies to be determined on the basis of standardized tests rather than on the basis of passing specified courses.

"The purpose of the last recommendation is to urge provision in high schools for specialized work really basic to college specialization. The Committee recognizes that smaller high schools will not always be able to provide a sufficient variety of specialized courses to meet the needs for special programs of all its graduates. In such cases, the colleges are urged to make provisions for the basic specialized work with as little handicap to the student as possible."²⁵

The Report was adopted by the Steering Committee of the Illinois Secondary-School Curriculum Program, October 15, 1949. A committee composed of representatives of secondary schools and colleges has been appointed to implement the proposal contained in the Report. We believe that the Report presents a plan by which secondary schools and colleges in Illinois can, through co-operative action, arrive at a clarification and a redefinition of the problem of college entrance requirements.

²⁵ Steering committee, Illinois Secondary-School Curriculum Program, *op. cit.* (in press).

Group XIV—Room 500

CHAIRMAN: *Thomas R. Hornor*, Assistant Superintendent in Charge of Secondary Education, Kanawha County Schools, Charleston, West Virginia.

INTERROGATORS AND CONSULTANTS:

R. B. Norman, Principal, Amarillo Senior High School, Amarillo, Texas.

James H. Smith, Principal, Lane Technical High School, Chicago, Illinois.

What About Driver Education in Our Secondary Schools?

BURT JOHNSON

INTRODUCTION

IN recent years, it has come to be an almost accepted belief that a teen-age driver operating a high-powered motorcar, can be more dangerous than a circus lion out of its cage. This belief has been built up by the publicity about what some reckless youngsters and "hot-rod" operators actually have done at the wheel with gory and painful results.

Less widely publicized is the fact that schools and other interested agencies throughout America are taking some steps to regulate youthful exuberance and eliminate irresponsibility at the wheel. And if the program of driver education in the nation's secondary schools continues to expand as it has since the end of the war, the time may not be too far away when the statistics of our Motor Vehicle Departments and Accident and Casualty Companies may prove that Junior is a safe if not a safer driver than his father.

However, at the present time, while we are justifiably proud of the number of automobiles in America, we are forced to recognize with shame and embarrassment our appalling record of highway deaths and injuries caused by the operation of these automobiles. In spite of the continued constructive efforts for safety over the years by numerous agencies, reports William Brewster of the National Bureau of Casualty Underwriters, the annual toll of highway deaths continues to exceed 30,000, while the number of injuries each year runs above a million and our economic loss totals hundreds of millions of dollars. The statistics are appalling and should provide a real challenge to the 28,000 secondary-school administrators of our nation.

DEFINITION OF DRIVER EDUCATION

What is Driver Education? What is being done, and how can we improve upon our present program? In order to eliminate any misunderstanding of terms, *Driver Education*, as defined by the National Conference on Driver Education, and used herein, refers to "all those learning experiences provided by the school for the purpose of helping students to learn to use motor vehicles

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safely and efficiently!" On the other hand, *Classroom Instruction* in a driver education program refers to those learning experiences which are provided elsewhere than in an automobile. *Practice Driving* refers to learning experiences in driver education provided for the student as an observer and student-driver in an automobile."

The purpose and objectives of driver education are the same in the classroom as in the motor vehicle; but certain objectives are more readily achieved through practice driving than through classroom instruction.

THE PLACE OF DRIVER EDUCATION IN OUR HIGH-SCHOOL CURRICULUM

The time has come for driver education to be clearly recognized as an important segment of the curriculum of our American secondary schools. When Briggs, who needs no introduction to secondary administrators, gave us this definition of the duties of the school; "The first duty of school is to teach those things which children are going to do anyway—" there is no doubt but that driver education would be included.

The education of automobile drivers is a highly significant part of the public high-school's responsibility for preparing young citizens to live efficiently, responsibly, safely, and with enjoyment. Nearly all boys and girls in the United States begin to drive while in high school or soon thereafter. Driver education may reasonably be thought of as a special phase of citizenship education and/or safety education today; but it should and must be recognized as an unusually important element in the general education of every young citizen.

Secondary-school principals long ago learned that, in order to achieve maximum educational results, the attention of each student must be directed upon those problems that are vital, here and now, in his own life. We know that a person rarely learns attitudes of respect, courtesy, and helpfulness unless he has satisfying experiences in practicing those attitudes in activities that are clearly important to achieving his own purposes. Likewise, a student learns specific skills through practicing them in situations that are highly significant and satisfying to him rather than through arbitrarily required repetition.

Therefore, the immediate practical purpose of driver education in our high school is to develop the student's ability to operate an automobile safely and efficiently. Beyond this is the more remote purpose of providing a sound basis for a lifetime of safe and efficient automobile operation. Furthermore, an important ultimate aim of public education, and about which we should be greatly concerned, is to develop strong attitudes of social responsibility; effective skills in studying the problems of the common welfare; and definite habits of co-operating with others to solve vital problems in ways that will make life more satisfying and profitable for everyone.

The need for driver education is evident to anyone who observes the behavior of automobile drivers and thoughtfully examines the available facts.

The number of automobile accidents in involving young people has been proportionately greater each year than the number involving older drivers. On the other hand, evidence has been accumulating for years that the most effective way to reduce these accidents is to educate those who are just beginning to drive. Thousands of lives have already been saved by high-school programs that have taught beginners the attitudes, understandings, and skills needed for safe and efficient driving. Many more thousands have no doubt been lost because of the absence of such programs; therefore, it becomes increasingly important that the present program of driver education in our secondary schools be extended and improved, and many new programs should be established in the immediate future.

The general and specific objectives for a sound program in driver education are too numerous to mention here in detail. However, it must be everlastingly remembered that the highly specific objectives to be achieved by a teacher and his students in a particular lesson or learning activity cannot appropriately be formulated without a thorough understanding of the individual student to be taught, the materials and instructional equipment available, and the knowledge, interests, and skills of the instructor. In the final analysis, however, the difference between success or failure in teaching, as in driving an automobile, is usually a matter of whether or not one has prepared himself thoroughly beforehand so that he does not have to stop the activity itself in order to figure out what would be the correct thing to do next.

In planning an instructional program for a course in driver education or in expanding and improving one already in operation, every secondary-school principal should be thoroughly conversant with the general and specific objectives as outlined by the National Conference on Driver Education and published by the National Commission on Safety Education of the N.E.A. In addition to the aforementioned suggestions, teachers and students, in determining details, should consider such factors as the special problems of the community, broad problems that one faces in different driving situations, nature and needs of the student, available instructional opportunities and materials, and reaction of the adult population in a particular community. Thus, while the general possibilities of driver education can be broadly suggested in advance, the specific details must be determined within each school, classroom, and community.

ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION

Secondary-school principals throughout our country must accept the responsibility to encourage and furnish through democratic procedures effective leadership for initiating and administering programs of driver education. No longer can we afford to stand idly by and allow or permit outside organizations or agencies to assume, initiate, and even take over our rightful responsibility as educational administrators. The pendulum has already swung far to

the left, either because of our lack of foresight, and funds, or because of our real concern with a vital problem in American life. It is not too late to regain our position and take the leadership in the field of driver education. All we need is interest in, and understanding of, the problem with effort and action to match it. We have the know-how. This leadership may be exercised by properly delegating responsibilities and by developing or aiding in the development of policies relative to finances, instruction, and use of materials and community resources.

Furthermore, we must use the resources of our local, state, and even national organizations and exercise every care to see that driver education is initiated as a result of the decisions of local and/or state boards of education rather than to have pressure groups and/or professional lobbyists of various agencies to high-pressure our legislators into passing laws demanding driver education, with little or no respect for local conditions or individual needs.

The division of Research of our N.E.A. reports that, "The tendency to dictate the content and methods of the curriculum makes the schools 'footballs of politics' among contending groups. There is no need to argue the point that this is wholly deplorable. It has been found by experience that the best way to escape this situation is to entrust state school boards with the power to approve curricula and to permit local school boards to authorize the courses to be given in schools within their respective jurisdiction."

Money to finance driver education should be a part of, and come from the same source as, the funds provided for the school's whole program. Driver education should not be financed with funds of outside nonschool agencies or from special sources earmarked for this purpose. The use of earmarked funds for any part of the school program is disadvantageous for sound reasons of which you are well aware.

The National Conference on Driver Education recommends the following type of program:

1. A complete driver education program includes both *classroom instruction* and *practice driving*. While the classroom phase by itself is of definite value, it is recognized that if all the objectives of driver education are to be achieved, practice driving must be an integral part of the program.
2. Driver education should be offered as a *regular part of the curriculum*, preferably covering a full semester, with both classroom instruction and practice driving scheduled in the same manner as any other class.
3. It is recommended that the minimum total time for a complete program in driver education should be from 45 to 60 hours, this amount of time to include a minimum of 30 hours of classroom instruction and an average minimum of 6 hours per student for actual driving.
4. Driver education should be offered at the grade level where most of the students are of, or closely approaching, minimum legal age for obtaining a driver's license.
5. In obtaining an automobile, the school system offering driver education should

purchase one or more cars for use in practice driving if it is at all possible. It is recognized, however, that under present conditions most school systems will necessarily obtain automobiles on a lease, loan, or rental basis from local dealers.

The National Conference further recommends that school systems using one or more automobiles for driver education should use some means to *identify them with the school and the driver education program*. There should be no commercial advertising or identification on such automobiles other than company names ordinarily appearing on and in stock cars. However, where state or local conditions require that schools secure their car, or cars, by a loan from local dealers, it may seem advisable to have or allow a courtesy credit identification. If such be the case, it should be limited to a single line used only once and not to exceed one and one-half inches in height. I mention the latter and want to emphasize it most emphatically, for in the past, yes, even today because of the prominent display of either certain sponsoring agencies and/or automobile dealers, names have been or are painted on all sides of practice driving cars, thereby giving everyone credit for the program of driver education except the one to whom credit is due—that is, our secondary school which actually does or should provide the place, the students, and the instruction. We cannot afford to allow such a practice to continue. Surely it is not in the best interest of our educational program. We would not think of allowing it to happen with any other subject in the curriculum. We cannot and must not with driver education.

EVALUATION

Finally, in making an evaluation of driver education in American secondary schools, we must remember our youngsters don't have to be killers. Teen-agers have long been known as the most dangerous drivers on our highways. But now it has been proved that we can cut their accident rate in half by teaching safe driving in our high schools.

Today, there are well over 3,000 dual-control cars being used in our schools in every one of the forty-eight states and the District of Columbia. More than 400,000 students annually can be given instruction in these cars. This figure sounds impressive until one realizes that there are 1,800,000 students in the eligible age group. Instruction of all kinds, *including those with and without practice driving automobiles*, is given in only about 6,000 of the more than 28,000 public secondary schools in the nation. The problem is no longer a shortage of training cars, for dealers willingly would supply many more if only we were prepared to use them; it is more our awakening to the necessity for driver education, studying school budgets, and in increasingly fewer instances, a question of convincing conservative school boards or superintendents that driver education is not just a "new-fangled frill."

To bear out this fact, the state of Delaware is perhaps the best example. Delaware is the only state providing driver education in each of its high

schools, with a substantial appropriation by its legislature for the support of its program.

Delaware is proud of and has confidence in its school-trained drivers and rightfully it should for in 1947 a survey revealed startling comparisons between the records of 800 school-trained and 800 nontrained drivers, the latter of whom were selected at random from the license bureau files. Only twenty-four of the 800 trained drivers, or three per cent, had been involved in accidents compared to 112 accidents, of fourteen per cent, among nontrained drivers; and among the trained drivers, less than four per cent had been arrested for traffic violations compared to twenty-seven per cent of nontrained drivers.

Other examples bear out the evidence that a school-trained driver is a much safer driver than a nontrained one. For example:

1. A study in Wisconsin shows that trained high-school drivers had forty per cent fewer accidents than nontrained drivers.

2. In Cleveland, Ohio, students graduating from a driver training course had only half as many accidents per month of driving after graduation as their untrained classmates. These examples are not absolutely conclusive evidence but there are a number of other studies besides the above mentioned, and they are consistently proving the value of driver education.

Safety experts rate teen-age driver education as the No. 1 remedy for the nation's appalling toll of auto accidents—approximately 32,000 killed and 1,200,000 injured annually. Systematic instruction of our young people is rated the most promising attack on the auto accident problem. A recent report shows that interviews with instructors who have taught teen-agers in more than a score of states revealed the following significant fact: Those interviewed unanimously believe that the classroom course in safe driving, even when not coupled with practice driving, is highly useful because it instills the all-important "proper attitudes" in young people.

Finally, as more and more secondary-school principals appreciate the value of driver education courses for teen-agers and include such courses in the required curriculum of our schools, much more wide-spread improvement in the operation of motor cars by youthful operators should be realized. This is borne out by the findings of the President's Highway and Safety Conference when it reported: "Probably the most significant development in the schools' program, apart from continued expansion, was the growing acceptance on the part of educators of this phase of education as a responsibility of the schools."

The future of driver education is now in our hands. We as secondary-school principals must accept the responsibility or see other agencies re-assume the initiative for some one is going to do it and soon. Secondary-school principals must accept the challenge. We cannot afford to do less.

What About Driver Education in Our Secondary Schools?

RAYMOND A. GREEN

THE right and proper time to teach a youth to drive an automobile comes during his teens while he is subject to the formal educational process in high school. A parent knows only too well the problems he faces when his son or daughter approaches the legal age at which either may use the family car. Dad and mother know the doubts and questions that will bother them after son or daughter has that permission. Will either use the car with care? Will he show off to his boy and girl friends? Will either accept responsibilities and obey the rules of the road and practice sane and sensible driving?

From his reading of the newspapers, Dad is aware that during the year more than 7,000 youth between the ages of 15 and 24 have been killed and some 300,000 injured in automobile accidents. He recalls that approximately one out of every three drivers involved in accidents is under twenty-five years of age. He knows, too, that property damage is enormous, yet the money factor is a negligible concern compared with the possibility of loss of life or permanent injury of his son or daughter. Moved by his great anxiety, he feels obligated, if only he can find the time, to teach his son to drive; to show him how to operate the car; and to help him learn what is necessary to pass the tests for his license. The father's motives are praiseworthy; however from his father the son usually learns very little that will make him a responsible, safe driver.

Experience over the past years has shown that seldom is a parent competent to teach the members of his immediate family how to drive. Even if quarreling or serious family disruptions are avoided, the parent-teacher is generally unskilled in the teaching techniques essential for such an important task. He imparts his own habits to the learner; far too often they are bad driving habits. Indeed, the father may not himself know the rules of the road, the answers to questions asked in the oral examinations required by many states. Dad learned to drive a car in a day when all he did was step into a car, try the gadgets, and, by hit or miss, make the machine go. Conditions for driving are today vastly different.

NEED FOR UNIFORM RIGID STATE LICENSING

Gradually the realization is growing that there is more to safe driving than merely getting a license to drive. In too many states requirements are not rigid enough to insure the public from danger. Other states intend to know that the young man driving the car has good attitudes toward safety, has good vision and depth perception, has good brake-reaction time, has good co-ordination, and has developed a sense of responsibility for the rights of

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fellow drivers and of the pedestrian. This last point is most important, for few accidents are the result of mechanical failures; most occur because the driver takes chances. He becomes intoxicated by the sense of the power of the horses under the hood of the car; the show-off recklessness of the devil prompts him to step on the gas, to unleash that power. He becomes transformed into a person who has lost all consideration for the lives or safety of his fellow men. Almost inevitably an accident results. The consequences for such a driver may be too serious for him ever to learn the correct way to drive. But as numbers of such accidents have increased, communities have decided that young people must learn all the factors involved in handling a car. Since parental driving instruction has proved to be inadequate, the natural action has been to place with the schools the responsibility for teaching youth how to drive.

SCHOOL'S RESPONSIBILITY FOR DRIVER TRAINING

Even though driver education in the schools has been increasing by leaps and bounds, there is still much opposition to it as a subject for a school curriculum. Many principals have doubts that this type of work is a proper function of the school. They wonder if it is just another job being foisted upon them, something which justly belongs in the home and is the responsibility of the parents. They question adding another subject to an already overcrowded curriculum. However, when one figures that soon there will be 50,000,000 cars on the road, and that three out of every four high-school students will be operating cars by the time they graduate, or shortly thereafter, it is evident that the logical place for such training is in the high school. There expert guidance and instruction can be given by a teacher trained in all the phases of driver education, a course which emphasizes good citizenship and attitudes as well as mechanical skills.

Under such a plan, whereby not only is the classroom phase of driver education taught, but also the practice driving phase with a live car, I believe the future parent, if taught properly while in high school, will play in time an increasing role in the training of his own son or daughter. Perhaps in the future the school may be relieved of some of the responsibility and cost of such a course.

COST

Driver education, properly done with expert teachers and equipment, including the car, is not expensive. Fortunately, in most instances cars can be secured free from dealers, automotive organizations, and interested citizens, so that the cost to the school system includes only the charges for operation, upkeep, and insurance protection. School cars can now be insured at regular private passenger rates. The cost per pupil for a complete driver education program is high because a teacher can handle so few pupils in actual practice driving. It has been estimated that a teacher giving the minimum course in driver education, with a single dual control car, can adequately teach

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about 200 pupils a year. The salary of the teacher is the greatest item in the cost of such a program.

The average cost per pupil for driver education courses (classroom and practice driving) was approximately \$25 in 1949 according to reports from eighteen states made in response to a special inquiry to state departments by the N. E. A. When one figures that the cost per academic subject is considerably less than this figure, it is logical to question the worth of driver education. However, when one considers relative values, instruction in driving is worth the price.

RESULTS

Several studies are already extant which prove that students who have taken a driver education course with practice driving have had a much more favorable road record than those who have not. The city of Cleveland, in a study of its accidents, concluded that the accident rate among men drivers who had received driver education courses in public schools was one half that of the untrained group. In Arizona, in 1944, 23 teen-age drivers were involved in fatal accidents; in 1945, the number dropped to 11; in 1946, to a low of 6. Since 1944, when driver education was introduced into high schools in Arizona, the decreasing fatal accident rate is attributable in great part to this type of instruction. The state of Delaware experienced a reduction in motor vehicle accidents involving the teen-age driver. Of 1,600 drivers—selected at random, 800 trained and 800 nontrained—the number of accidents for the trained was 24 or three per cent; for the untrained, 112 or 14 per cent. Massachusetts also has reported a tremendous drop in accidents involving personal injury in the 16- and 17-year-old driver group from a high of 1,203 in 1941, to 642 in 1947. No small part of this improvement is due to driver education courses in the public schools. Today over half the schools have classroom courses in driver education, and 68 schools have practice driving instruction.

COURSE NEEDED

Today there is tremendous concern lest we in the high schools are not training our youth for a proper adjustment to life situations. Driver education, including behind-the-wheel or practice driving instruction, is a life adjustment program with a vengeance. It appeals to all types of youth from the very brightest to the slowest learners, regardless of their station in life. It is one of the few high-school subjects that a teacher never needs to justify to the pupil, especially if the chance to learn to drive a real car is the culmination of the course. It can be a tremendous motivation for the best in citizenship training; it can be vocational in its final result. However, the course must not be something extra, tacked on to the regular curriculum as an afterthought; it must take its place in dignity with all the other subjects. It should be a course given for credit, preferably on a semester basis, with a minimum of thirty hours for classroom instruction and six hours for practice driving. It must be given

to pupils of the proper legal age for driving. For it, adequate practice areas must be provided; state and city traffic agencies are always willing to assist in the selection of areas for practice driving. Finally, the course should culminate in the student's getting his license to drive by passing through the regular routine required by the state, not by his being granted any special favors.

PROPERLY TRAINED TEACHERS NECESSARY

Properly trained teachers are a necessity for a successful driver education course. A bottle neck confronting administrators is the lack of teachers adequately trained in this field, but there are evidences of relief in this respect. An ever-increasing number of colleges are including driver education courses in their teacher education programs. Moreover, the teacher must possess patience to the nth degree, for such teaching is exacting work done, as it is, under all sorts of road conditions. The saving grace is the eagerness of the pupil; the reward is the noticeable accomplishment and progress of each individual student.

VALUES OF SUCH COURSES

May I make a few personal observations about the values of driver education work as it is conducted in a formal school setting. In 1923, in my civics class, we studied the state regulations and rules of the road, purely as a problem of good citizenship development and as a matter of looking after one's self, a sort of self-conservation idea. By 1925, the course developed into a program including an anti-thumbing-of-ride campaign. Enthusiasm mounted in the youngsters; they were eager to emphasize better living through ways more practical than mere textbook routine. With this development of civic interest came bicycle licensing and greater emphasis on driver education, to the point that during the depression an experiment in practice driving was conducted in conjunction with the Harvard University Bureau of Traffic Research. The instruction was practical; the writer took the course and learned from sad experience some of his own shortcomings, especially in the area of social driving. Without question, the experiment was successful; but the matter of costs prohibited the introduction of this phase of driver education in the high school at that time. Now, however, it is a part of our curriculum, on a credit basis; it is very popular and very successful. Such a course, as I know from my own experience and the experience of others, engenders intense interest. I only wish there were as easy ways of arousing equally keen interest in some of the other school subjects, just as important, but without the immediate recognizable value in the eyes of the students.

It is encouraging to note that instruction in driving for young people has passed the experimental stage. Approximately 470,000 students in 6,000 schools participate in driver education courses of some type. Yet, there are 28,000 high schools in the country, with but twenty per cent of the eligible students taking this type of work. The sooner the public is convinced that this

type of education, even though more costly than most subjects in the present curriculum, brings immediate benefits in good living, just that soon will they insist on its inclusion as a school subject. It is the job of the principal and superintendent to present the story to the public and so secure their understanding and co-operation.

Excellent material has been published and should be a "must" on every school administrator's reading list. Two such publications are *The 1949-50 Inventory and Guide for Action* by the President's Highway Safety Conference, and *High-School Driver Education—Policies and Recommendations*. The latter was developed at the first nation-wide Conference on High-School Driver Education, held at Jackson's Mill, West Virginia, in October, 1949. To high-school principals, this bulletin may well serve as a guide in the sound development of high-school driver education programs.

Of course, school administrators are not so naive that they believe the only solution to the traffic accident problem is the offering of driver education courses in the schools. Obviously there must be better traffic and road engineering and stricter law enforcement by the states. A uniform motor vehicle code for all states would be a blessing. But with the best of engineering and enforcement, traffic accidents will still occur. The attitude of the person behind the wheel is the biggest single factor in the traffic problem. Only the development of sound attitudes in our young, prospective drivers will noticeably reduce the number of fatal, crippling, and costly accidents. The best agency to inform and instruct these young drivers is the school.

Group XV—Room 400

CHAIRMAN: *Franklyn L. Blume*, Principal, Monroe High School, St. Paul, Minnesota.

What Are the Most Promising Practices in Secondary-School Administration?

CARL EKOOS

A CONSIDERATION of the most promising practices in secondary-school administration should, I believe, provide the members of this convention with new and practical educational advices which we may take home to our respective communities. To be asked to present "a most promising administrative practice" presents a challenge, an opportunity, and a duty to the cause of secondary-school education in America.

At the Hayward Union High School in Hayward, California, we have in operation an educational practice which already has proved itself to be most

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promising. We like to refer to it as our "Six Area Curriculum." In such an administrative organization all the subject matter in a secondary school, in fact, all the academic, social, and other activities of the school are gathered into six large groupings. These large areas of interest serve the student's individual need in such a way that he finds it necessary to program himself for experiences in every one of the Six Areas.

To understand this arrangement better we should go back a few years. Before 1945, the curriculum offering at Hayward Union High School was divided into fourteen traditional departments; that is, subject matter dealing with the English language was grouped under the head, English Department; foreign languages under the head, Language Department; science subjects under the head, Science Department, and so on.

We had the traditional department set-up along with the traditional lack of relationship providing little or no integration among the several departments. Teachers seemed to belong to a department rather than to the school at large; departments protected their isolated budgets at all costs, and it often became apparent to a student that he must meet the self-determined prerequisites of a department in order to sign up for subjects in that department. On the whole, it seemed that students existed for the needs of privileged departments rather than the reverse; namely, departments for student needs.

In 1945, the school board authorized a school survey which was conducted by an outside group of professional educators. The results of the survey indicated that it was essential to change the curriculum in order to focus it on the needs, interest, abilities, and vocational and citizenship future of the pupils in the school.

In order to design an administrative practice which would meet the needs of students at Hayward High, we first had to come to agreement as to just what these needs might be. Faculty and group discussions revealed these to be:

1. The need of all youth to receive adequate training in citizenship for living together in a democracy
2. The need to develop physical fitness, recreational interests, personal and social health, and to maintain hygienic conditions
3. The need of some students to acquire salable skills in order to enter an occupation and the need of other students to gain competence together with good academic work habits in order to succeed in college.
4. The need of every student to have opportunities to develop his own particular interests entirely suited to his general needs, desires, and abilities.

SUBJECT DEPARTMENTS REGROUPED

In order to meet these needs and at the same time to consider the philosophy that no secondary-school program should become so specialized that

time is not available for satisfying special interests and special hobbies, we abolished departments and re-grouped all our subjects in six areas; namely,

1. Language Area
2. Science-Math Area
3. Fine Arts Area
4. Social Studies Area
5. Vocational Area
6. Health Area

Through this area organization we have a flexible curriculum which is geared to meet the needs of the students as outlined. During his first year at high school (a four-year school) a student selects one course in every area. As he progresses and as his needs and interests become more centralized, he may begin to elect additional hours in areas of his choice.

The Six Area organization requires the operation of a sound guidance program. This is provided quite naturally by the Social Studies Area. A student is required to take one class in social studies during every semester of his four-year course. The social studies teacher is also the student's counselor and remains with the student (and the class) throughout the student's stay in high school. In this way, the student and social studies teacher (the counselor) meet each other in class one hour every day for four years; needless to say, the counselor becomes aware of the needs of every student in his group.

The flexibility of the Areas has encouraged the inviting of selected outside speakers to appear before classes. A course in family living on the senior level which has proved to be most outstanding has contributed such outside speakers as the president of the Parent-Teachers' Association, the county doctor, the county nurse, psychiatrists, and others. In fact, the progress and present status of the Social Studies Area alone justifies our re-organization program.

The faculty itself has profited greatly and has made its contributions. Faculty members of every Area meet as study groups to study curricular and other needs. By following the Area pattern, a constant effort is being put forth to increase the ability of the school to meet its obligations. We thus find that the Area organization is proving to be of value in all of the activities of the school.

The Fine Arts Area is an excellent example of the application of this type of organization to community relationships. Where formerly the preparation of a community production was often a headache to all concerned, we now have perfect co-ordination and willingness to perform.

The vocal music, instrumental music, stagecraft, costume design, modern dance, art classes, and others are all members of the Fine Arts Area and are proud to work as a unit. Productions become the product of the Area as a whole and, better still, perhaps, are considered to be a normal part of the

intra-area curriculum. Productions are no longer considered to be "extras," an attitude which is now true whether the production is presented after school, in the evening, or on Sunday. The Area feels that it is meeting the needs of its students at all times through these various activities.

A final criterion of the value of the Area type of organization might be found in the fact that the teachers' association has set itself up to parallel the Six Areas. One teacher is elected from every Area to compose the executive council of teacher representatives. All matters which relate to the needs of the teachers are interpreted in terms of area needs, and so on.

Teachers are good judges of the values of various educational practices, and, surely, one would not be considered to be too *naïve* to feel that, if the teachers themselves adopt this arrangement for their own purposes, the Six Area Curriculum must be a promising educational practice!

What Are the Most Promising Practices in Secondary-School Administration?

WAYNE E. MCCLEERY

DEMOCRATIC ADMINISTRATION

DURING the past two decades and perhaps to a greater extent during the last decade, there has been an increasing emphasis on the principles of democratic secondary-school administration. Secondary-school administrators have studied and considered the advantages along with the disadvantages of such democratic principles. It seems quite clear that most leadership in the secondary schools, as well as in elementary schools and colleges, must be based on such democratic principles to be of lasting value. To be certain, such administration is very difficult, and, at times, progress is very slow due to the fact that the principles of democratic action are of necessity time consuming. However, over an extended period of time the progress made will be of real and lasting, rather than doubtful, value.

Those people involved in democratic administration must first be made to realize that each individual must work harder, give more thought, and be more tolerant of others and their ideas. When democratic procedures are followed and practiced, every one involved is considered to the fullest extent and this means more time, effort, and labor. Second, the individuals concerned may consider it a privilege to participate in planning, formulating policies, and making decisions. Along with the privilege of doing all this, comes a definite responsibility for the consequences and results. Individuals are sometimes reluctant to do the latter.

Wayne E. McCleery is Principal of the Community High School, Crystal Lake, Illinois.

CURRICULUM STUDY AND REVISION

As the schools have come to a realization of the inadequacy of the curriculum to meet the present-day needs of youth of secondary-school age, more and more interest in curriculum study and revision has developed. The secondary-school staff that today is not studying the percentage of students who drop out of the educational program at each grade level in the secondary school and even in the elementary school is missing a splendid opportunity to initiate curricular revision. A further study as to the reasons for the holding power not being better will lead to real study of curricular revision. Curriculum development must be a democratic process. No program can be set up in advance and external to the particular school involved.

A most promising practice in curriculum development is the interest evidenced and leadership furnished on the state level. As many of you know, the Illinois Secondary-School Principals' Association for the last few years has been very much interested in this phase of secondary-school administration. Through the efforts of this Association and its officers, the State Superintendent of Public Instruction of Illinois, Vernon L. Nickell, obtained an appropriation from the General Assembly to finance such a program of curriculum development. Colleges and universities lent their support and encouragement. Under the leadership of William C. Sanford, Co-ordinator of the program, certain basic studies were made of such matters as the holding power of the secondary school, hidden costs, participation in extra-class activities, a study of the guidance program, and a follow-up study. Some findings were:

1. The drop-out ranged widely from less than one to as many as eight withdrawals for each ten of the original pupil group who continued on to graduation. For every ten who received their diplomas slightly fewer than three pupils dropped out in the school study.
2. The holding power of the largest and the smallest schools was very closely the same.
3. Slightly over half of the pupils who withdrew from high school at any time were boys. In general, the schools seem to have made themselves appreciably less attractive to boys than to girls.
4. Approximately four out of every five withdrawing pupils were near the bottom of their class. Evidently our standards of what constitutes failure or success in school are seriously in need of re-examination.
5. It is overwhelmingly the children from the lower-income families who withdraw from high school.
6. Hidden tuition costs were found to increase sharply from the freshman to the senior years. The average costs by classes were as follows: freshmen, \$95; sophomores, \$117; juniors, \$134; and seniors \$150.

Developmental projects were initiated in a few secondary schools. The school which your speaker serves participated in the basic studies and also

was selected as one in which a developmental health project would be inaugurated. Participating in the developmental health project proved to be a most interesting and stimulating experience for not only the administrator but also those directly involved in the curriculum development as well as the entire staff, students, and community.

ELEMENTARY-SECONDARY SCHOOL CO-OPERATION

The day is past when the elementary school can be regarded as a separate entity as far as the secondary school is concerned. The secondary-school people must evidence a greater interest in all of the phases of elementary-school education, if for no other reason than the product of the elementary school comes to the secondary school. Likewise, elementary-school people need to become more interested in secondary-school education and its problems. A promising practice in secondary education seems to be the willingness and desire to co-operate with the elementary-school staffs.

In Illinois, as you know, we have the dual system of education. For example, the high school which your speaker serves has ten elementary schools in its district. Three of these are private and seven public schools. Each of the public schools is administered by a separate board of education and educational staff. This constitutes a real problem for joint study of problems. However, you will be interested to know that in spite of these difficulties, regular meetings of the administrators from all of these schools are held and the members of the counties studying various problems consist of elementary- and high-school teachers. It has been found that both groups can make a real contribution to the educational problems of the areas involved.

Many other promising practices in secondary-school administration could be listed, such as the increased interest in a study of human relations and family life in the curriculum, but your speaker was permitted to mention only a few because of the time limit involved.

What Are the Most Promising Practices in Secondary-School Administration?

J. E. STONECIPHER

THE smooth functioning of a very complex organization is the pride and joy of the high-school administrator. The most promising administrative practice in secondary schools is that so many administrators are willing to risk disturbing the established routine and procedure in their schools to try new approaches. Once an administrative pattern is set up for a school, picking out the minor flaws in successive years can achieve remarkable efficiency. To

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break it up for the promise of better fundamental achievements through unfamiliar practices requires energy and courage. Willingness to change and to experiment wisely with promising pioneer developments deserves recognition. I will mention five categories into which many important innovations may fall.

I. THE CO-OPERATIVE APPROACH TO SOLVING THE PROBLEMS OF EDUCATION

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School administrators are moving farther and farther away from the idea that the direction of all aspects of the school stems from the wisdom of the chief administrator. It is common to find that he considers himself the co-ordinator who sees that solutions are achieved, calling upon the human resources available in the community and the school. Curriculum improvement is a co-operative responsibility of classroom teachers and administrators. In the selection of texts and reference materials, the teachers who use the books have come to have the primary responsibility. Committees of teachers participate in devising and explaining the salary schedule. When building and financing problems arise, their solution has called for staff members, community leaders, and teachers to work together until an answer to the problem has been secured.

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The provision of time for teacher groups to plan together has increased the co-operative nature of school faculties. Some schools have pupils come fifteen minutes later on one morning each week, releasing teachers from before-school duties to provide for a full hour of planning and discussing together the educational activities of the school. The careful planning which a group must make to justify and use effectively such time places a new emphasis upon co-operative approaches.

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Summer workshops, provided in their own school system and centered around the problems the teaching and administrative staff are trying to solve, have become the regular practice in a number of school systems. A concentrated two or three weeks of study and planning after schools are dismissed for the summer can climax the on-the-job exploration during the school year and move a whole school or city department forward on the double. Such administrative plans are usually classified as in-service training, but, unless it is developed by the co-operative planning of those concerned, much of the vitality is lost.

II. EVIDENCES OF THE PERSONAL-GROWTH CONCEPT OF EDUCATION

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Educational magazines give proof in their many articles describing practices that the acquisition of information is only one concern of schools. The October, 1949, issue of the North Central Association Quarterly describes a large number of practices in the field of guidance, placement, and follow-up. The many different plans by which the guidance function is served are evidences of the concern felt by administrators and the ingenuity they have used in trying to meet the need.

Testing programs to provide the basic information needed by teachers and counselors have increased and improved tremendously since the war closed. Most important, the sensible, informed use of the test results has increased. The administrative program is with increasing frequency directed toward helping the teacher make better use of the test findings in working with pupils.

The education of exceptional children, especially the slow learner and the physically handicapped, has become increasingly effective, and more schools are making provision for special education. The manpower shortages of war days taught us the value of our partially handicapped citizenry and the worth of special provisions for their education. They require specially trained teachers, smaller classes, infinite patience, and willingness to center on personal growth as the most important objective of the school's program. The state-aid programs have increased the financial resources for the education of handicapped children and encouraged new emphasis on this important aspect of school planning. Special provision for slow learning pupils in senior high schools is beginning to receive attention. Some attention is being given to special provisions for exceptionally gifted children. Kansas is reported to have assigned a member of the state superintendent's staff to work on a state-wide basis to encourage school systems to plan for students of exceptional ability.

The core-curriculum principle has exceptional vitality, even though it often exists in name rather than in actuality. The desire to do something of the nature of the core curriculum comes basically from the realization that, when education is too greatly compartmentalized, it may leave the pupil with no one in the school who looks at the whole child and takes responsibility for his welfare. School leaders realize that there is something missing when the pupil has too many teachers with each interested in only a narrow fragment of his school experience. Contrary to popular belief in many quarters, the core curriculum is not generally practiced and often is claimed where it is largely a new name for the old program, but the persistence of the idea and the frequent attempts to make it work are all to the good and definitely promising.

III. THE expectancy OF CHANGE

The schools of America have been charged with a too-ready acceptance of "fads and frills" of education. They are, however, essentially conservative, and only a strong conviction on the part of the administrator that schools must alter their programs to improve will permit the needed change. The Eight Year Study, 1934 to 1943, and the many experimental programs patterned after its more promising developments indicate the healthy interest in something better than we have. *Education for All American Youth* in 1944 proposed unusual patterns for schools. It received respectful consideration

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and approval, but little installation in practice. The Prosser Resolution in 1945 attracted attention anew to needed changes resulting in the Life Adjustment Education proposals. It is most encouraging that these proposals have received such widespread approval by administrators, writers of popular magazine articles, and the general public. The support of the practical and powerful American Vocational Association and the United States Office of Education, supplemented by a majority of the state departments of education, gives the program great emphasis. It is not subject to the charge that a "fringe group" is primarily responsible for its initiation. Thus far, however, it exists largely in the realm of administrative discussion. A distressing lag exists between philosophic acceptance and action toward achieving the ends sought. But it is encouraging that administrators accept the need for improvement as established and are willing to expect that educational programs must change. The administrator's attitude is either an effective barrier against change or an agent for the promoting new practices. The *expectancy* of change is a promising administrative characteristic.

IV. PRACTICES WHICH TAKE EDUCATION OUTSIDE THE PAGES OF TEXTBOOKS

The study of lessons assigned in textbooks is still the prevailing practice in American high schools and will probably continue to be so for some time to come. But the legion of administrators who willingly labor to arrange for irregularities which permit the use of community resources and the study of real problems when they arise is growing. Co-operative work-study programs, the provision and use of periodicals, pamphlets, and newspapers, and the setting up of extensive learning projects such as the Skokie Industries are on the increase. It is now the common thing for school buses to be used during the school day for educational trips. It was an unusual provision a few years ago. High-school days in retail stores, co-operation with city officials on citizenship days, human relations institutes or family life institutes in co-operation with adult education programs, and the use of civic club members as vocational consultants are all evidences of seeking to bring students into contact with real life situations. Administrators have to exercise all their ingenuity to secure the flexibility of program that will permit such practices to continue. Hats off to the one who accomplishes it without destroying too many of the values so dear to the hearts of parents and teachers.

V. HIGH-SCHOOL CREDIT COURSES FOR ADULTS

Many adults are found in every community who left high school before they qualified for a diploma. Some of them are regretful that they are not able to list themselves as high-school graduates, even though they have educated themselves to a high level. Some are barred from advancement by merit system or civil service requirements that only high-school graduates may be considered for many levels of work. In developing facilities for returned soldiers, it was found that good progress could be made by arranging for

individual coaching schools where students planned out their study with the help of outlines discussed with an instructor, studied as rapidly as they were able to go, asked for help in the rough spots, and earned credit in the course by a terminal examination. To supply a need for those who must work during the day, evening courses were opened in one case from 7:00 to 9:30 P.M. on three nights per week. In this particular school, an average enrollment of about 65 men and women has held up for three school years, students ranging in age from 17 to 56 years of age. A man and wife graduated in 1949 aged 38 and 41. A registered nurse, 52, with a high-school daughter received her diploma in January, 1950. Here is indicated a fertile field for service, on administrative provision overlooked in a majority of school systems, and within the range of possibility in any city of 10,000 or more. It is superior to correspondence courses in many ways and much easier for students to follow than independent home study which a few schools have provided in past years.

SUMMARY

In summary, it would be easy to set up a long list of promising administrative practices. Instead, I have listed five general categories and noted illustrations that fall under each. Most important is the willingness of administrators to try new approaches toward achieving the goals of education. They have

1. Accepted and used the co-operative approach to solving the problems which stand in the way of better education.
2. Made many changes that prove their loyal adherence to the concept of education which places "personal growth" of pupils in a high rank in their scale of values.
3. Demonstrated that they are expecting American education to change as American life changes.
4. Encouraged education to move outside the pages of books and the sterility of words into real experiences that have personal meaning to the youth.
5. Begun to make some provisions for adults, young and old, who either would not or could not gain a high-school diploma to move toward the title "high-school graduate" which in these days opens many doors that are closed to those who do not possess it.

What Are the Most Promising Practices in Secondary-School Administration?

J. G. UMSTATT

THE most promising practices in secondary-school administration are those that put democracy to work in the high school. Such practices may be found in some programs of in-service education of teachers, in the creative type

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of supervision of instruction, in the better public relations program, in modern personnel management in the secondary school, and in the proper use of the Evaluative Criteria for the evaluation of the total school. Many of the newer practices in these areas are highly important. But the administrative practices of greatest promise are those associated with pupil participation and with curriculum development, because it is those practices that give greatest hope for the advancement of the democratic way, American style.

Since 1931 dictators around the world have challenged our plan of life, and with each successive challenge our allegiance to our way has strengthened until today it is almost worshipful in its intensity. Democracy has become our only road to survival. For us as a nation, then, it is of primary importance that our people's school, the high school, become the dynamo of democracy. Its administrative practices must be inspired and guided by such fundamental concepts as equality of opportunity, equality of respect, freedom from prejudice of class, race or creed, government by the governed, majority rule that respects minority rights, and academic freedom for both teacher and learner. Toward this end, the areas of pupil participation and curriculum development afford greatest opportunity. Let us examine them in turn.

PRACTICES THAT INVOLVE PUPIL PARTICIPATION

Many administrative practices that are associated with the student council, the home room, the traffic patrol, and the study hall, for example, arise from our democratic beliefs. Schools on the frontier of practice have given an increasing number of administrative tasks to students through these and other agencies. One recent survey¹ revealed thirty-one administrative and semi-administrative jobs being done by student councils. These activities related to the school's political affairs, publications, services, discipline, and social functions. In these schools over a period of years, the principals had launched the student councils and had gradually delegated authority to them in the management of an increasing number of school affairs. Among the thirty-one responsibilities reported by councils in the survey were chartering school banks and student organizations; publishing three types of publications; planning, scheduling, and conducting assemblies; conducting orientation programs for new students; maintaining information and lost-and-found centers; promoting proper conduct; helping to cultivate self-respect and to develop morale; and managing drives, social functions, and homecoming celebrations. Our purpose here is not to discuss student councils. That is amply cared for elsewhere on this program. The council is named solely to illustrate promising practices in school administration. The practices in mind are those that delegate to the responsible student agency many details of administration.

¹ MacGuffie, Lois Hanna, and Umstattd, J. G. *The Student Council in the Secondary Schools of Texas*. Research Study Number Six, The Texas Study of Secondary Education, The University of Texas, Austin.

Another series of promising administrative practices that involve student participation relate to the home room. Results similar to those just reported were obtained in a recent study of home room practices.² This investigation and others of wider scope have shown the home room to be an important agency in the administration of the guidance program. Lesser functions of the home room care for numerous administrative details related to elections, announcements, group collections of personnel and test data, rallies, freshmen orientation, drives, and campaigns. In fact, the temptation faces the principal to interfere with the educational and guidance functions of the home room by delegating to it too many administrative responsibilities. Where discretion is used, the practice of permitting the home room to handle many administrative tasks is one of the most promising of the last decade.

If other illustrations were needed of administrative practices that put democracy to work through student participation, one would have only to mention the safety patrol organization common to most high schools today, a practice which has already fulfilled its promise. Or attention might be called to the plan of giving students complete charge of study halls, a practice that has operated successfully in some high schools long enough to have become a cherished tradition under which teachers and administrators are forbidden to enter a study hall. The chief value from student-controlled study halls would not be the \$70,000,000 saved annually if the practice were applied universally in our 28,000 high schools. Rather, the chief values of the plan would be the development of self-discipline and a sense of responsibility in the student body, and the improved learning that would follow such development.

Those administrative plans that delegate responsibilities to students are based on such democratic concepts as faith in the individual, self-discipline, self-government, and the earning of privileges through the performance of duties. By their participation in the management of their school, students lay a solid foundation for an understanding and appreciation of the concepts of democracy and they gain skill in its procedures.

It is clear, then, that the administrative practices that have used student participation have already been powerful forces for the promotion of the democratic way. It is highly probable that the future will prove that this vast resource of democratic action, pupil participation, thus far has been barely tapped. Opportunities for its expanded use lie ahead of us.

ADMINISTRATIVE PRACTICES THAT RELATE TO CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

Democratic ideas have also found expression in certain administrative practices that are proving effective in the development of the curriculum. Two cases will serve as illustrations of a widespread movement.

In one city several years ago it was decided to promote to the junior

² McFarland, J. W. and Umstad, J. G. *The Home Room in 215 Texas Secondary Schools*. Research Study Number Seven, The Texas Study of Secondary Education, The University of Texas, Austin.

high schools all over-aged pupils in the upper elementary grades. The junior high schools were immediately faced with a difficult curricular problem. A number of steps were taken promptly. *First*, after it had been estimated that the policy of reteaching the repeaters in the grades had been costing \$40,000 per year, it was decided to use this amount to employ additional counselors and curriculum personnel in the junior high schools. *Second*, the staff made case studies of the retarded children and designed curricular experiences to fit their levels of attainment, their capacities, and their needs. *Third*, a doctoral candidate prepared a comparative analysis of adolescent needs and administered it to the graduation class to ascertain the degree to which the needs of all pupils were being met by the total program. *Fourth*, the doctoral study was followed by numerous curricular adjustments to correct weaknesses it had revealed. *Fifth*, careful records were kept of evidence of improvement such as increased holding power, better attendance, progress of pupils, and pupil behavior. A second dissertation is now being written to report the results in full. Marked improvement in the satisfaction of the needs of the adolescent is already on record. Throughout this work, pupils have been respected as individuals, however retarded they may have been; adjustments have been made to give each a fair opportunity to advance at his own rate; each has had a hand in planning his own educational experiences; and the morale of the student body has been such as to afford the retarded school-mates genuine fellowship with the other pupils in the schools.

The second illustration of democratic administrative practices in curriculum development is drawn from another city of about 100,000 in population. Here the program is somewhat broader than the one just described. The whole school system is involved, and it is almost true that the whole city is participating. The procedures include an occupational analysis of the region with the aid of numerous business and industries to determine gross job needs and opportunities; the assembling of a very large amount of opinionnaire data on school policy and practice from parents, pupils, and teachers; forum and press discussions of the issues of modern education; a comprehensive analysis of how well the needs of pupils are being met; the mapping out of an ideal educational program for the city based on the results of the preceding steps and with the aid of lay groups; the appraisal of the present program to ascertain how closely it approaches the ideal; and, finally, adjustments and extensions to fill in the gaps. This program has been under way two years and is now in mid-stream. It gives promise of at least fair success and has already demonstrated that procedures which apply the principles of democracy are highly effective. The city is alerted to the needs of the schools; P.T.A.'s, student councils, and other groups are providing constructive suggestions; and faculties and administrative officers are evaluating themselves and are seeking better ways to meet the needs of pupils. The entire enterprise is based

upon a profound belief that such democratic procedures in curriculum development will work. All that has happened thus far has strengthened that belief.

CONCLUSION

The theme of this discussion is that the most important administrative practices are those that best apply the tenets of democracy. Attention has been focused upon only two of the numerous areas of secondary-school administration, those of pupil participation and curriculum development. The several illustrations permitted by the allotted time are only suggestive. The success of these early ventures should give us courage to explore further into the potentialities fostered by this way of life. Similar successes multiplied by future effort will increase our faith and will bring the surest safeguard against those who would challenge democracy and the power its freedom gives to man.

What Are the Most Promising Practices in Secondary-School Administration?

RAYMOND T. GRANT, S. J.

REGARDLESS of the fact whether a youth attends a private or public school, he is an American imbued with the ideals and hopes of his country which is the common heritage of a democratic freedom. Practices are insignificant or important in light of this fact. Administration guided by this principle may not always be efficient, but at least it will be directed toward the best development of the student.

In the public school systems there are many and varied types of education which will have the only note of similarity in as much as they are tax supported. The private schools with the religious and nonsectarian schools with multiple differences will possess their sole likeness in the common name. These schools owe their existence to the wish and determination of a segment of our population to support such schools so that their sons and daughters may receive the kind of education which they desire for them under the Constitution and in accordance with our American tradition.

PHILOSOPHY

In the democratic spirit of our nation it is not unusual that there is a differentiation in the aims and objectives of the divergent school systems. The public school will have its own outlook in regard to the total growth of the pupil while the private school may have a different purpose. The religious school will not have the same insistence as the nonsectarian private school. A private, religious school should be expected to reflect the philosophy

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of its Church affiliation. There are private schools which hold that man as a creature is dependent upon God for his existence and for all his possessions—natural, supernatural, spiritual, and material. The dignity and worth of the individual is based upon his creation to God's image and his Redemption by Jesus Christ. Rights and duties of the human being which are inalienable are rooted in the Divine Authority as recognized by our Founding Fathers. It is their conviction that each person has an immortal soul with an intellect and will who will have his final perfection and happiness in an everlasting life provided he has lived according to the designs of his Creator. In such a scheme, God must hold a primacy even in education.

CHILD-CENTERED EDUCATION

Both the public and private schools have a common denominator in education since they are concerned with the education of the child. The modern school teacher has placed his insistence upon the dignity and worth of the individual. In striking conformity with this reasoning, the religious educator is mindful that he is not teaching a particular subject but human personalities. He is filled with an interest and preoccupation in each one of his students so that there might be realized the fullest development in the intellectual, social, civic, religious, and moral life. He does not remain aloof from his pupils, but he endeavors to be a source of inspiration in the solving of their problems. He will hold as a first principle that action can arise from personal discovery so that he will lead the student along the path of self-activity guided by ethical and religious tenets. In his own life the teacher knows that no one gives of what he does not have, so he emulates his Master in sincerity and singlemindedness both in self-control and Christian gentlemanliness which will favorably affect those with whom he comes in contact.

ETHICAL EDUCATION SATISFYING AN IMPERATIVE NEED

General Eisenhower has intimated that, unless there is a moral regeneration, there is no hope for us and we are going to disappear one day in the dust of an atomic explosion. Those who are planning destruction are feverishly toiling in the atomic field, while men who desire survival know that only by a careful observance of the rights of others and respect for each one shall we be able to continue to exist. The seventh Imperative Need of Youth of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, "All youth need to develop respect for other persons, to grow in their insight into ethical values and principles and to be able to live and work co-operatively with others," expresses a potent way to save this generation and the future of mankind.

This need is effectively fulfilled in the religious private school by its course in social ethics and by the permeation of the whole atmosphere of the school with the notion of the Fatherhood of God and the brotherhood of man with God as our Father and Jesus Christ as our brother. Religion to be mean-

ingful must operate every day of the week. Ethical training is taught by an insistence upon a sincere completion of religious duties which will insure the performance of other obligations. Through the teaching of eternal and lasting values, there is inculcated a sense of responsibility, a respect of authority both divine and natural, a considerateness for the rights of others which is the formation of civic virtue. While the dignity of the individual is important, still the sacredness and integrity of the family is essential for temporal and eternal prosperity. The correct position of the worker and his work with the material and spiritual interdependence of all men is taught, and the necessity of unity founded in justice and charity is clarified.

SOME SPECIFIC RELIGIOUS PRACTICES

To supplement these religious practices, a method which deepens and broadens character traits by aiding in living with ourselves and with our God has been evolved by means of the religious "retreats." The paradox of the Greek philosopher, "Know yourself," is perhaps the surest way of building and moulding character. When men will withdraw from the association of their fellow men and dwell apart while they consider the reason of their existence, their own position in God's creation together with His divine plan, there is produced an effective influence upon character and the patterns of action which will be unselfish and principled.

All our students each year undergo such a retreat while the seniors make a closed retreat at a Retreat House for three days. Here thirty young men will gather and be guided along the way of the Spiritual Exercises of St. Ignatius. In a prayerful environment the youth will spend the time considering his own problems in reference to the divine truths. There is a voluntary silence to which each one willingly submits. There is time for confession, consultation, conferences, roundtable discussions, and prayer.

This is a way in which pupil-personnel can be used in which the young men is not only self-motivated but also learns his Christian duties more in a practical than in a theoretical fashion. In this aspect of the life adjustment program, the spiritual and religious are included in the total need of the pupil.

SOCIAL INTERPRETATION

At times we may feel that the student is muddled in his thinking, but beyond doubt and upon their own admission the parents are confused in their adjustment toward the quickening and ever diversified problems which seem to be presented to them by their own offsprings. Some religious private schools have devised Nazareth Conferences with a panel discussion of parent, teacher, pupil, and lay specialist. The problems of the teen-agers are viewed in light of the school philosophy with subjects of "recreation," "entertainment," "spending money," "dates," and other kindred items which are vital toward the proper understanding of the obligations of each one. These conferences

have received enthusiastic approval of the parents who attend or participate in the proceedings.

Since the school has as its office not only to impart intellectual knowledge but also to educate the students in social ethical living, a better articulation between school, parent, and pupil can be accomplished by these conferences.

REPORT CARDS AND SURVEYS

The uninitiated may think that a private, religious school spends most of its time upon sacred learning and forgets the profane pursuits. An examination of the curriculum and the time schedule of these schools will disprove any such misconception. The private school seeks to become proficient in use of the tools of learning and will use the many inventions in recording progress in this field. The modern business firms, private industry, and even government agencies are using with good effect the tabulating machines and the various instruments of the International Business Machine Corporation. Colleges and universities have had recourse to these devices in registration and composing reports on their students.

Last year in our private school we made use of an IBM service in making out the report cards to parents and composing surveys of teachers and pupils. The IBM service offers at a reasonable price:

1. An IBM report card on the progress of the student
2. A survey of the grading of classes by subject
3. A survey of the teacher and the subject taught
4. An analysis of the average grading of each teacher
5. An analysis of the grading in the whole school.

THE ADMINISTRATIVE PRACTICE

As can be readily seen these surveys and analyses can be just an accumulation of statistics which gather dust until someone removes them into an incinerator or they can be used for the purpose of an examination of the school's attainments in the light of its philosophy and objectives.

INTERVIEW

1. *Teacher-Principal Interview.*—The principal, after he has distributed the results of the surveys to all the members of his faculty, will have a friendly conference with each one to discuss the results with the individual teachers. The general distribution of the grading can be noted, and it might be pointed out to some that it is a fallacy to assume that a certain percentage must do unsatisfactory work while another group does superior achievement. The principal will point out and show, in case that the letter system is used, what each grade should mean. Again a teacher may have to be told various factors which enter into a grading.

This is an opportunity for the principal to learn of the particular or peculiar difficulties in the presentation of the matter, in the makeup of the class,

and in the curriculum. Finally, the principal will encourage the teacher to strive to reach the optimum in regard to each one of his pupils. Throughout the conference, the administrator should seek to keep the teacher at ease and make him realize that he is not criticizing him but only endeavoring to improve and make more advantageous the instruction in the school. This will be appreciated by the faculty if tact and friendliness are used.

2. *Teacher-Pupil-Parents Interview.*—The principal can set aside an interview day for the parents together with their sons with the teachers in the subjects in which the students are doing unsatisfactory work. Ordinarily most parents are most eager for such a conference in order that they might be of help to their sons. It has been a frequent experience that many items will be brought to light of which the teacher or the parent of the student are totally ignorant—the conditions of students at home, especially while housing is at a premium, personal family problems such as separated parents, situations at schools which have conditioned the pupil in his attitudes to study and application to a specific subject. Many of these conditions may be alleviated by such a conference so that the student will have a more positive view towards achievement.

3. *Pupil-Academic Adviser.*—The academic adviser will have an interview with the pupil and discuss the implications of the student's report with him. The strong and weak points in the total student report will be considered while the correction or change in class and home application to study will be discussed. This interview is as important as the other conferences if the school is to maintain its student-centered education.

The danger of statistics for statistics' sake must be obviated by the principal with an intelligent and personal use. However, objective studies, made by the IBM, do improve the over-all educational attempts. As long as the student-centered education is not lost sight of, the use of the IBM is another technique which can enhance the educational picture of a school.

AN ADMINISTRATIVE PRACTICE IN REGARD TO THE HONOR SOCIETY

If the principal avoids the evident danger of creating intellectual snobs by the erection of an Honor Society, great educational benefit can be obtained through a sane administration of this organization. This can be accomplished if some of the following points are put into use.

1. By carefully making the applicants understand that scholarship is not sufficient and, likewise, service is not complete without intellectual pursuits.
2. Make the chapter attractive and desirable to join without lowering standards so that there are some emoluments for the combination of loyalty and the acquisition of knowledge.
3. There should be recognition for the double qualities which are necessary for the fulfillment of a school's objectives. There are some students who are so intent on the acquisition of wisdom that they are per-

fectly oblivious of everything else. Again there are excellent students who become so engrossed in serving their school and the community that they place studies in a purely secondary position. A principal will endeavor to see that he chooses a sponsor who is cognizant of the problems and that an arrangement is drawn up to avoid such things. This can be done by having a constitution which will be made up by the entire faculty and the students approving. This can be submitted to the National Honor Society for approbation and criticism.

The tactful and democratic sponsor will obtain the participation of all those who are eligible for membership, and a better attitude toward service will grow up in the school while the spirit of study can be induced into the student body. For this reason, the chapter might be divided into three divisions: a senior group, an undergraduate group, and a probationary section. The reason for this division is to make even the freshmen conscious that they can become members of the coveted honor. Such a project will not only arouse interest but also from the first advent into the school a boy will see that he can become a member of this organization through loyalty, service, and scholarship. He will throw himself more readily into the worth-while activities.

4. Honor pins are given to those who have compiled certain points through activities and scholastic honors. A certificate is presented at graduation to a member, his permanent record will carry this fact while all transcripts of credits will note his membership in a chapter of the National Honor Society. Then an Honors Club room can be fitted out where members can congregate and recreate and where special lectures on cultural subjects can be heard.

NOT UNIQUE PRACTICES

In private schools there is no pretense to set themselves apart from the educational program of the schools, but it is their wish to participate intelligently and co-operatively in all that can add to a better harmony among our youth. The few techniques and methods which were briefly described are neither singular nor unique but are a student-centered approach of some private schools in the field of secondary education. There will be the continued effort to improve all phases of instruction so that youth may not only enjoy our material progress but also be given the best in educational opportunity.

Group XVI—Room 201

CHAIRMAN: *E. R. Sifert*, Superintendent, Proviso Township High School, Maywood, Illinois.

INTERROGATORS AND CONSULTANTS:

Edwin F. Whedon, Principal, University High School, Los Angeles, Calif.

Calloway Taulbee, Principal, Portales High School, Portales, New Mexico.

How Can Democratic Administration Be Attained by the Principal?

JOHN H. MARTIN

FOR eighteen or more years there had not been a faculty meeting devoted to professional matters. The overwhelming majority of the staff had served in the school district for more than fifteen years. They were unaccustomed to group responsibility or simple committee procedures in handling educational problems; and presumably, from the surface appearance of things, they did not resent or object to administrative direction by fiat announcement. Under such circumstances, the advice to move slowly, to be prudent in "granting" responsibility and authority to teachers for school management should have been heeded. It was not. Such advice is written out of the Valhalla of administrative smugness, and it is based on the malignant assumption that school administrators are inherently more democratic than classroom teachers and that teachers, unlike administrators, have to be coached and coddled into the ability to enjoy responsibility. This doctrine of caution leading to further stagnation is set forth in our current textbooks in public school administration serving to reinforce the common human failing which holds one's neighbor to be less ready for progress than one's self. In any case, the simple experience described here, to those who took part in it, refuted that doctrine.

GROWING PAINS

At the beginning of September, 1948, the faculty of thirty-two was requested to discuss the desirability of electing five of its members to represent it at weekly meetings with the high-school principal to advise on the operation of the total school program. It was apparent from the reactions on the faces of the teachers that this request was looked upon as one more administrative order, however gently put. Docilely and without enthusiasm, the teachers acceded to the principal's request and duly elected the five most

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respected and able teachers on the staff to a group to be called the Faculty Advisory Committee.

At the first meeting of the group in the principal's office, the oldest male teacher asked in a tone mixed with skepticism and hope, "What is to be the area of our advice to you?" Hesitant in his speech, his hands were more expressive of his feelings than his words. As he spoke he shaped a square with his outstretched palms and then, as if this were too ambitious, he changed to the thumb and forefinger of one hand, opening and closing them to demonstrate what he meant by "the area of our advice to you?" When the principal replied with an arm's breadth motion that the entire policy and organization of the school were to be under the committee's purview, he was met with a vacant stare that clearly said, "Oh, let us talk about the heavenly vacuums of educational philosophy but don't meddle with the earthy problems of the teachers." It was apparent that verbal protests of administrative intentions were without meaning. If the committee was to accept the sincerity of the principal, then a real issue of consequence to them would necessarily have to be their first task.

A system of detention study halls for failing students was an item of general concern to the teachers. The teachers felt that this particular issue was an administrative imposition that only the authority of traditional school management made them grudgingly accept. This was by quick agreement the issue that was to be the natal effort of the groups. Once broached, it was accepted with enthusiasm, but the problem of how to go about the solution had to be met.

But initially the Faculty Advisory Committee had to decide whether it would be the actual working committee to make a study and, on the basis of the study, make decisions, or whether it would bring in other members of the faculty to work on the problem. If the latter course were chosen, what was to be the relationship of the other teachers to the Faculty Advisory Committee?

PROCEDURES ADOPTED

On the basis of their experience in their own private organizational activities, the Faculty Advisory Committee decided that working committees of other teachers would be used to study and report on major issues. They also agreed upon the following procedures to govern the working committees:¹

1. Members of a working committee would be named
2. The chairman would be appointed

¹ Several of these were evolved later during the course of the school year as experiences indicated their desirability.

3. The work to be accomplished by the committee would be specified by careful definition of the problem
4. The minimum sub-questions the Advisory Committee considered essential to an adequate coverage of the problem would be stated
5. Titles of articles and publications related to the problem would be suggested
6. Committees would be required to submit reports in writing
7. Committees would be given a date by which they would be expected to make their reports
8. A written notice appointing each committee to detail its function, membership, due date, sub-questions, etc., would be distributed to all members of the faculty
9. All working committees were to report their findings to the Advisory Committee for approval before presentation to the whole faculty

In addition, the Faculty Advisory Committee had to evolve working relationships between itself and the faculty as a whole. There was no deliberate and formal discussion of this problem. Instead, by acceptance of certain initial decisions made in regard to handling the first few problems that arose, a pattern developed that came to control the relationship between the two groups. For example, the Advisory Committee agreed that all minutes of its weekly deliberations were to be mimeographed and distributed to the entire faculty on the day following the meeting. This was done for a number of readily seen reasons. Through these minutes, the entire staff would learn quickly that its representatives were at work; issues that had been brought to the attention of members of the Advisory Committee were seen to have been disposed of, and action taken in regard to these issues would be subject to immediate review by the people concerned with them.

Another early action which governed later relationships between the Committee and the faculty was the previously referred to decision requiring working committees to report to it prior to presentation of their studies to the faculty. This led to what became one of the major functions of the committee—the control of the agenda and the calling of faculty meetings. Major issues, or complex problems, requiring the use of working committees needed the full discussion of the entire faculty before decision. Similarly, such decisions needed to be based on the complete information provided in the work of these temporarily established committees.

And so the working or *ad hoc* committees came to be used for large or disputed items. But the Advisory Committee also concerned itself with a large assortment of minor difficulties for which remedies seemed to be readily available within the resources of the Advisory Committee. Again, without formal decision, the committee came to act directly, making decisions that governed the school; it became the clearing house for rapid decisions on minor vexations in the teaching lives of the staff.

If the Faculty Advisory Committee could not agree, then it was apparent that, as representatives of a larger group, that group, likewise, was or would be divided. Accordingly, at this point in its discussions, the Committee would either appoint a working committee to study the problem for later review by the entire faculty with a formal decision to be made by the entire staff, or it would place the unagreed-upon item on the agenda for the next full faculty meeting for discussion and decision or further study. It is apparent from this that, unless the Faculty Advisory Committee was unanimous, no direct action was taken. The group did not arrive at this decision to act only when in full agreement as the result of a formal set of by-laws governing their work. Rather, through pragmatic experience, the teachers found that they needed to be very certain of themselves because, for a large range of items, they had become a legislative organ establishing new ordinances and rules for the workings of their institution. They became sensitive to the impact their decisions would have upon the other teachers and the pupils. Accordingly, they were anxious to have the support of the entire staff in regard to measures that radically altered methods in use.

VALUES IN ADOPTING PROCEDURES

In thinking over the probable consequences of instituting a procedure whereby teachers were to take part in the management of the high school, the principal had been admonished in the professional literature to reserve such veto control as his responsibilities in the position required. Accordingly, the group were titled "The Faculty *Advisory* Committee." Their deliberations were to be advisory in nature, the principal reserving the right to accept or deny the programs or action recommended. Yet, as the committee's work evolved, this original view became untenable. If after careful study following the pattern previously described for committee reports, the solution or measure suggested to ameliorate a troublesome problem was agreed to by the Faculty Advisory Committee, the position of the principal was already determined. He had taken part in the discussions dealing with a committee report. He had had ample opportunity to express his views and, if he found himself in a minority position, experience demonstrated that that is where he undoubtedly belonged. Most probably he had not marshalled sufficient facts to support his view, or he had presented them ineptly, or he represented a weaker argument than the majority were supporting. In any case, the veto under such circumstances would have been a retreat to authority and an acknowledgment of personal failure. And so the principal's original attitude on the prerogatives of high office were rapidly modified. The administrative veto was impossible.

Similarly, a collective bargaining situation involving the teachers on the one hand and the principal on the other did not exist. Because the committee became six in number rather than five teachers *versus* one principal, the deliberations of the group were controlled by an atmosphere in which the only objective of the whole committee was to seek for the best answers to the problem studied. No individual had any vested interests—all were joined by a sincere desire to work for the general improvement of the school. Had the principal used the group as a camouflaged procedure for instituting his ideas, or had he refrained from putting into practice the agreed-to measures, then the teachers would rapidly have considered themselves a true grievance committee acting as a pressure group for the whole staff and a "bargaining" relationship would have resulted—a relationship inimicable to a healthy professional body of teachers.

For similar reasons, other changes in committee procedure took place. The first meeting had been held in the principal's office. No subsequent meetings were scheduled there. The psychological dominance of the office prevented the development of an atmosphere of personal ease among the teachers, and all future meetings were held in the librarian's office. Meetings were scheduled for every Wednesday beginning forty minutes before the close of the school day at 2:30 P.M. and ending, by general agreement, not later than 4:00 P.M.

The committee soon learned that voting and formal motions were obstacles to agreement and action. They found, again without formal discussion, that in a group so small everyone's opinion became apparent during the course of the discussion. No votes were necessary. Had voting been used, it is the opinion of the writer that it would have tended to congeal attitudes that study subsequently changed. There is a barrier to changing one's overt demonstration of opposition into later support. Prevent the formalization of opinions until the facts are studied and shifts of position will be more likely to occur. Permit an early vote and the odds are great that additional facts will merely confirm positions already taken. At any rate, it became psychologically easy, for whatever reasons, for members of the Advisory Committee to say: "I never would have believed it could be done that way."

Another circumstance that developed early was the absence of a chairman for the Advisory Committee. Had the group been called upon to elect a chairman, the issue would immediately have arisen in the minds of all present regarding the position of the principal in the group. If the teachers were to bargain with the principal, then a chairman would have been useful. But the principal had placed himself into the committee as a working member

and, by so doing, had agreed to accept the decisions of the whole group as binding upon him (although he was initially unaware that this would be a result of so placing himself). Under these circumstances and with the rather conversational informality with which matters were handled, no chairman seemed ever to be needed. It is believed that an outside observer would have found that, for the most part, the person raising a question guided the discussion resulting. Actually, the principal was absent from about one third of the meetings that took place during the year. Remarkable indeed were the minutes of the committee's meeting on the morning following one of the principal's absences. The minutes said: "It was discussed and *decided* that—" The committee had met, discussed their problems, and the following day, as usual, had issued the minutes. They had acted.

A further point of minor consequence that seemed to have some virtue was the early decision made by the advisory group to deny membership on any working committee to its own personnel. This was done because the group did not feel that one of themselves should later come back and sit in partial judgment on his own work. Additionally, they may have liked the arrangement because it kept them free of working assignments while they were busy with their own "advisory" functions.

OUTCOMES

Finally, some evaluation of the accomplishments and weaknesses of the procedure is necessary. In the realm of accomplishments, two general results were apparent. The first of these concerned the actual work accomplished—the decisions made, the procedures developed, the jobs done. These ranged all the way from the personally petty to the educationally significant. Supplies of paper, pencils, and ink in the study hall which for years had been the individual chore of each teacher in charge each period of the day were a troublesome annoyance. With everyone responsible, no one was; with the result that for years it had been an item of irritation. When the matter was brought up before the Committee, it was disposed of very quickly by making the principal's office responsible for stocking supplies in the study halls each morning. A very minor item, but, like many others, it was the source of teacher dissatisfaction that never reached the ears of the principal because the individual teacher hesitates to be a "chronic complainer."

Students excused too often from class, visitors in the halls, distribution of report cards, and others that can best be described by the term "educational housekeeping" occur throughout the minutes of the Advisory Committee. Some of the major educational accomplishments were: a revision in the procedure for remedying academic failure; a home-room guidance program with

a four-year sequence from grades 9 to 12; a series of faculty meetings using student panels on the general subject, "The improvement of instruction"; a study of aptitude testing and its place in the school guidance program; the improvement of the cumulative folder; the need for and the acquiring of a full-time remedial reading teacher; and others of this nature. These were significant accomplishments. Some of these were not carefully studied and, as a result, were executed in rather elementary fashion. But a start toward the professionalization of the staff had been made.

The second major area of accomplishment dealt with the less tangible aspect of what happened to the teachers as a result of this procedure. Most emphatically the atmosphere of the staff changed. People were happier at their work. One objective measure was the number of teachers' cars that remained in the parking lot long after the dismissal of school. They stayed through no administrative order; rather they were there as a consequence of their own desires or as a result of studies initiated by themselves or their peers. Work was imposed by teachers on themselves that the most autocratic of principals would have hesitated to suggest. On several occasions, the principal had objected to recommended courses of action because he felt that the work-load involved was too great for the program to be maintained. In several instances, he was overruled.

A further measure of the psychological result of the procedure could be seen in the death of an ancient educational institution—the teacher gripe session at the lunch hour. Amazingly, discussions became friendly and, to a large degree, nonshop talk. Politics, fashions, and local news supplanted the "Why can't we—?" "Why do we—?" type of vinegared speech too often characteristic of teachers' lunches.

Some individual anecdotes are revealing. The chairman of the joint committee of teachers and parents studying a revision of the report cards said after her report was accepted: "I don't know of anything I've done in many years that scared me more to begin with and that I got more satisfaction out of completing than this report." The male teacher member of the Advisory Committee, who had asked at the first meeting what area they were to advise upon, said at one of the later meetings: "My only complaint in regard to the work of this group is that here I've had to wait this long to learn more in one year than I have in the past thirty." And the above statement was not made with a smile; rather, it left the group momentarily embarrassed at its naked sincerity and true regret.

Finally, the recommendations made for improvement showed that the advisory group felt that they had learned far more than had any of the teachers and that the experience was too valuable to be limited to so few. They rec-

ommended that election to the committee be staggered so that a new member would be elected every two months taking the place of the most senior member then completing his year with no one eligible for re-election within the year he left office. Additionally, it can be acknowledged that more use could and should have been made of existing educational research on the problems studied. This may, in truth, have been administrative impatience with a staff initially almost pure in its ignorance of the literature available. In fact, however, most of the problems encountered were far removed from the subject-matter specialties the teachers knew. Accordingly, their lack of knowledge should have been the principal's responsibility to understand and to accept as a pointer toward the contributions he should have made.

Teachers, too, learn by doing, and administrators are not exempt from the rule. Courage to begin and an honest desire to work with a group on problems it feels important are the twin needs for starting a system of responsible professional freedom in any school.

How Can Democratic Administration Be Attained by the Principal?

R. EMERSON LANGFITT

THE excellent presentation which Principal Martin has just given us should certainly be a good foundation for a vigorous and profitable discussion. I assure you that my own remarks in trying to help to present the issue will stay well within time limits in order that the interrogators, consultants, and as many members of this discussion group as time permits, will have an opportunity to contribute to our growth in understanding of one of the really challenging issues in school administration today.

When I looked at our topic, I was impressed with the wording of the question: "How Can Democratic Administration Be Attained by the Principal?" It seemed to me that the suggested emphasis for our discussion was well placed in the area of things that the principal can do. I think you will readily agree with me, however, that only the neophyte in secondary-school administration would expect a mere listing and detailed description of all the "right" procedures and practices which would assure the attainment of democratic school administration. In this field of basic philosophy and comprehensive human relationships we should welcome the seemingly successful practices as reported from other schools and attempt to adapt them to the situations in our own schools. We must develop the "know-how"—the procedures, tech-

R. Emerson Langfitt is Professor of Education, School of Education, New York University, New York, New York.

niques, practices—to guide human relationships in democratic living, but we must not expect to find these administrative procedures to be clearly labeled, neatly packaged, and instantly ready for use. There is an essential difference between the application of the skill of the craftsman and the diagnosis and selective treatment of the professional practitioner.

CLARIFY CONCEPTS, VALUES, AND POINT OF VIEW

My first proposal for the role of the principal in attaining democratic administration is to clarify his own concepts, values, and point of view. As an exercise in professional growth and understanding, I suggest that the principal write down on paper for his own study and cogitation some of the basic tenets of democracy and then to think through the implications of his accepted values for democratic procedures in his high school. Discussion with other people, which may range all the way from private conversation between two friends to large group discussions, should be very helpful in clarifying ideas and developing skills in communication so essential for the principal. Other principals and professional friends would be helpful for these discussions, but people in all walks of life would give more breadth and better perspective. Extensive reading in the voluminous writings now readily available on democracy and democratic administration should be informative and suggestive. We must remember that all the pertinent writings now ready to help us are not found in educational books and magazines. *Modern Arms and Free Men* by Vannevar Bush and *Education in a Divided World* by President Conant of Harvard University are examples of reading to challenge our democratic thinking.

It would seem to be perfectly apparent to all of us that a mere listing of the basic tenets of democracy or of a number of definitions might be a sterile experience. On the other hand such a simple experience might be a starting point for the principal who feels that the state of his present thinking on this problem is cloudy, nebulous, or confused. He might turn to his bookshelf for Goode's *Dictionary of Education* to read the democracy is "a way of living that stresses individual worth and the integrity of the human personality, in which individuals conduct their social relationship on a plane of mutual respect, co-operation, tolerance, and fair play."

In looking through representative yearbooks or reports of professional organizations, the principal might be inspired by any one of many statements such as the following from *The Expanding Role of Education*, Twenty-Sixth Yearbook of the American Association of School Administrators: "Democracy's ideals must be known *by heart*. This does not mean that they are to be known *by rote*. Exactly the opposite. They must be known in terms of what they mean, how they can be had, and how they can be improved. Only thus are they known *by heart*, as we here use this term. They must also be known *by reason*. However noble may be the ideals of a society, they need to be made

effective. And they can be made effective in whatever measure the children of men can be taught how to control the means for making them effective."

Surely any principal can find renewed faith and courage in some of the publications of the Educational Policies Commission. In *The Education of Free Men in American Democracy* we read that we should "fashion an education frankly and systematically designed to give to the rising generation the loyalties, the knowledge, the discipline of free men. In a word, the American public school, through its life and program, should proceed deliberately to foster and strengthen all those physical, intellectual, and moral traits which are the substance of democracy—to incorporate into the behavior of boys and girls the great patterns of democratic living and faith." In a more recent statement of the same Commission entitled "American Education and International Tensions," we read that "the schools should continue with vigor their programs for giving young citizens a clear understanding of the principles of the American way of life and a desire to make these principles prevail in their own lives and in the life of their country."

Recent developments in a divided world have emphasized the real nature of the life-or-death struggle of democracy with totalitarian ideologies. The issue now seems to be clear, and the challenge is immediate and of transcendent importance. The threat of overwhelming destruction by total war is pressing upon us as we clarify our understanding of democracy as a way of life and emphasize its significance in the age of the atomic bomb of today and of the hydrogen bomb of tomorrow. Vennevar Bush states in his *Modern Arms and Free Men* that "the world is split into two camps. In blunt summary terms, there are on the one hand those who believe in freedom and the dignity of man and on the other hand those who believe in a supreme conquering state to which all men would be slaves."

Although we can feel little except disdain for the Soviet pedagogy which is so well revealed in Yesipov's *I Want to Be Like Stalin*, it does not follow that the schools is our democracy must adopt a policy of defeatism or impotence in sustaining our democracy. Democratic ideals and practices should be clarified, cultivated, inculcated—yes, indoctrinated, if you please, for the basic tenets of democracy and for the preservation of our American way of life!

STUDY THE MEANING OF DEMOCRACY

My second proposal for the development of democratic administration by the principal is the encouragement of all teachers to study the meaning of democracy and the desirable democratic procedures for their own school. The degrees of ultimate success of democratic administration in any school will depend largely upon the success of the teachers in clarifying their thinking and understanding about democratic values. What opportunities has the principal encouraged for studying and practicing democratic administration in

teachers' meetings, committee meetings, forums, workshops, oral and written reports, and in actual participation in developing school policies and in solving school problems?

A program of democratic administration superimposed by the principal has little chance of reasonable success. A number of years ago, as a teacher in one of our early junior high schools, I observed the chaos and tragic failure of a program of an over-night change from the somewhat formal regime of departmental organization for grades seven and eight in the elementary schools to a superabundance of freedom and democracy in a junior high school. The teachers, parents, superintendent of school, community leaders, and board of education reacted swiftly. The new principal retained his job only for the first semester of the school year. As a supervisor of schools, a college teacher, a visitor and consultant in schools, I have learned that frequently many of the teachers do not understand or approve the so-called democratic philosophy of the principal. Principals in graduate courses in school administration which I have taught in recent years frequently complain about the lack of sympathy and understanding of democratic administration by many of their teachers—especially the older teachers. Classroom teachers in a course on "The Teacher and School Administration" frequently bemoan the "roadblocks" to democratic administration in their schools—yes, the principals were the "roadblocks," especially the older principals.

I remember quite well a visit which I made a few years ago to the office of one of the state directors of education in Australia and subsequent conversations which I had with the very intelligent and amiable educator. He was very much disturbed by his visit to some American high schools—in California I believe—in which he observed the great amount of time and effort spent by the pupils on extraclassroom and social activities. He was especially impressed with the large amount of freedom which he observed in the actions of the pupils. One of his favorite examples was that of his predicament when he happened to be in the corridor of a large school as school was dismissed for the afternoon. He always insisted that at that moment he believed he was in danger of real bodily harm from the onset of outgoing pupils.

Democratic procedures should grow out of democratic professional relationships. Intelligent co-operation and support will come more readily from teachers who have helped formulate policies and procedures. In a very real sense democratic administration is an attitude of mind; it stimulates initiative and helps to develop professional spirit. The principal *and* the teachers will attain democratic goals through democratic processes.

THE ROLE OF THE PUPIL

Another area for fruitful and essential work by the principal who would develop democratic administration is found in the role of the pupils. He must provide an opportunity for pupils to develop their understanding of democ-

racy and democratic school procedures. The making of free, responsible citizens for our democracy is a major responsibility of the school. Do the pupils in their classwork, extraclassroom activities, and their own organizations have an opportunity to clarify their thinking and understanding of democratic living? Do they really contribute to the philosophy of democracy accepted by the school, and do they help develop some democratic school procedures?

SCHOOL CONTACTS WITH HOME AND COMMUNITY

Even with the limitations of time for this paper it seems important to invite your thinking to one more area to be cultivated by the principal. Democratic administration can not be attained without a fair degree of understanding and support of the basic philosophy of democracy as related to school procedures by the parents and citizens of the community. Through home and community contacts by principal, teachers, and pupils and through personal and group reports to and discussions with many citizens, the necessary understanding and community support may be developed.

Although time will not permit the discussion in this initial presentation of the work of many organizations and agencies in promoting democratic administration, I invite your own expansion of the possibilities of many existing groups in school organization. The proposals in this paper for developing the understanding and providing for democratic participation of the principal, teachers, pupils, school officials, parents, and citizens have been achieved to a large degree in many schools by capitalizing the resources of organizations which are well-known to most principals. An incomplete listing of such organizations might include the following: teachers' council, teachers' meeting, principal's cabinet, teachers' committees, student council, student organizations, parent-teacher association, fathers' club, mothers' club, and various lay advisory groups. It is a challenge to the vision and leadership of the principal to receive maximum contributions from these and other groups.

A WORD OF CAUTION

A few words of caution to relatively inexperienced principals would seem to be appropriate at this point. In developing such a complex program of broad and varied human relationships as is included in democratic administration, it is almost inevitable that the principal will encounter trials, problems, and headaches. In one sense this is the price we pay for democratic progress. Perhaps our problems and headaches can be minimized by profiting from the experience of others.

Some years ago in a graduate course which I was teaching in secondary-school administration, I asked an experienced, liberal, and progressive principal of a large high school in New York City if he would accept the majority vote of his faculty to determine school policies of important procedures. His first answer was decidedly in the affirmative, but, as he continued to talk and answer questions from other members of the group, he modified his statement

in approximately these words: "Yes, I would accept the majority vote of my faculty for decisions on all except those cases which violated my fundamental educational philosophy and beliefs!" It would be interesting to know how frequently some principal operating under this policy of his own would use his implied veto. It is also interesting to ask if that principal, or any principal, should announce that he would always accept and attempt to execute school policies and procedures determined by a majority vote of the teachers. It is not difficult to visualize a situation in which the rights and interests of pupils, parents, voters, and taxpayers might be the determining factor.

Other questions in that same discussion soon brought out that the rules and regulations of the superintendent's office and the board of education might determine the policy or procedure to be adopted by the principal. State laws and regulations of the state board of education and other state agencies were also cited to limit the final authority of the teachers in determining school policies and procedures. It might be argued that the determination of policies and procedures by the teachers alone would not be democratic administration. The public schools are the public's schools. Moehlman says that "the theory of democratic institutional authority considers the enlargement or contraction of institutional activity to be a function of the people. The educational interests of all the people are superior to the interests of any special interest-group and of the teaching profession."

Perhaps I have lived long enough and have had enough experience to make this observation. Some—I hope—it is a few—of our colleagues who talk or write much about democracy in education are in truth the most ingrained, confirmed, and hopeless autocrats. Masquerading behind a smoke screen of glib talk and self-induced excitement about democracy, good will, brotherhood of man, love, and opposition to sin in general, such thwarted, frustrated, incompetent, and personally ambitious souls may be found in the ranks of principals, superintendents, and college professors. I beseech your forgiveness for not presenting a list of names to answer this indictment. Possibly a few of you will fill in the real name of John Doe to be tried for a jury of his professional peers in your own school system, county, or state. To paraphrase a statement of an able Negro leader; we are interested in the *do* democracy and not the *talk* democracy. In the words of Alonzo Grace, a liberal and experienced administrator, "we must avoid the fantastic concept of democracy in education possessed by many. To some this is a flight into the stratosphere without a goal, without direction, and with insufficient fuel to make the return trip safely. It is a nice ride for everyone for a while."

SUMMARY

As a partial summary of this presentation and its implications in attaining democratic school administration, permit me to provide the following role of the principal:

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1. To develop for himself a clear understanding of the meaning of American democracy and democratic school administration
2. To develop the ability to communicate democratic ideals to teachers, pupils, school officials, parents, and all citizens
3. To approach the study of school policies and practices in a truly democratic frame of mind
4. To co-operate and share with all people concerned with the school in attaining democratic administration
5. To establish effective channels of communications, liaison, and co-operation with important community groups
6. To evaluate present school policies and practices co-operatively and democratically
7. To strive to develop his own personality that he may live as an example of the democratic way of life.

Permit me to give a final salute to all principals who have the courage, vision, and faith to embark upon democracy's vessel sailing for the port of democratic administration; to them I say, with deep appreciation and all possible encouragement, *bon voyage* and good luck.

Group XVII—East Concourse Vestibule

CHAIRMAN: *John E. Sency*, Principal, Fenger High School, Chicago, Illinois.
Joint Meeting with the National Congress of Parents and Teachers

What Is the Professional Opportunity of Secondary-School Principals for Leadership in Parent-Teacher Education?

E. T. McSWAIN

SECONDARY education is a community's investment in its youth and in its future. It is reasonable to assume that the students now in high school will live in a society of increased speed, scope, and complexity. These students will be required to demonstrate higher educational competency if they are to cope intelligently and successfully with the opportunities and problems that will emerge in the second half of the twentieth century.

A socially significant program in the high school is dependent on the mutual understanding and co-operative support of laymen and teachers. Secondary education is a community enterprise. Its purposes and curriculum are designed by the desires that parents have for the personal-social development of each youth. The high-school program if it is to prepare effectively for democratic citizenship in an age of applied science must be supported by

E. T. McSwain is Dean of The University College, Northwestern University, Evanston, Illinois.

courageous, unified action on the part of all members of the community. Parent-teacher education is an indispensable part of a high-school program that seeks to serve the needs of youth and also the cultural requirements of a democratic society.

The purposes and enabling activities of a local high-school Parent-Teacher Association are conditioned by the principal's understanding of the goals and guiding principles that have given direction to the activities of the Parent-Teacher Association for the past fifty-three years. The principal who has taken the time to read the publications of the National Congress is familiar with the achievements that have been attained by the officers and members of the many local PTA units identified with elementary schools and with secondary schools in each of the forty-eight states in improving the educational opportunities for children and youth. The contribution that a parent-teacher association is making to the high-school program depends in part on the principal's interpretation of its educational value and on the leadership that he gives in adapting the program to the needs of the school. The principal and the faculty should be as well informed about the objects, principles, and enabling practices of the PTA as they are about the purposes, materials, and methods of the school curriculum. Leadership in parent-teacher education is an important function of the administrator and the faculty of a high school.

GOALS OR OBJECTS

The PTA signifies more than a local, a state, or a national organization of parents and teachers. The organizational structure serves only as a medium of operation and communication. The PTA is an educational program focused on the welfare of all American children and youth. The officers and members of this great educational movement have held consistently for many years to these goals or objects:

1. To promote the welfare of high-school boys and girls in home, school, church, and community
2. To raise the standards of home life
3. To secure adequate laws for the care and protection of youth
4. To bring into closer relation the home and the school so that parents and teachers may co-operate intelligently in the education and guidance of youth
5. To develop between educators and the general public such united efforts as will secure for every youth the highest advantages in physical, mental, social, and spiritual education.

These goals now give direction to the study, planning, and action of approximately $6\frac{1}{2}$ million men and women who are participating members in this outstanding experiment in parent-teacher education. The person who has read the report of each annual convention of the National Congress recognizes the scope of the parent-teacher program and also gains an understanding of the progress that has been made securing improved school programs and in developing communicative relations between the school and

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the home. The officers and members of the PTA have played an active and effective role in helping to obtain such educational achievements as: (1) the enactment of child-labor legislation, (2) compulsory school-attendance laws, (3) the establishment of juvenile courts, (4) more adequate financial support for schools, (5) better salary schedules for teachers, and (6) better state legislation for education.

POLICIES

The democratic center in parent-teacher education is the local PTA unit. It is a unique community organization for the reason that the program is focused on the welfare of all the children and youth. Each member is also identified with one or more occupations and one or more civic groups. The ideas and factual information about democratic education gained from the philosophy and programs of the PTA give new meaning and direction to community citizenship. The local PTA can be the most effective citizens committee on education in the community. Continued progress will be made in home and school education in every community where there is a courageous, dynamic PTA that plans and conducts the enabling activities in harmony with the policies adopted by the National Congress. These policies are:

1. The purpose of this association shall be educational and shall be developed through conferences, committees, and projects.
2. This association shall be noncommercial, nonsectarian, and nonpartisan. No commercial enterprise and no candidate shall be endorsed by it. Neither the name of the association nor the names of its officers in their official capacities shall be used in any connection with a commercial concern or with any partisan interest or for any purpose other than the regular work of the association.
3. This association shall not seek to direct the administrative activities of the school or to control its policies.
4. This association may co-operate with other organizations and agencies active in child welfare, such as conference groups or co-ordinating councils, provided they make no commitments which bind their member groups.

In the degree that each high-school PTA observes these policies or principles there will emerge mutual interest, mutual understanding, and productive co-operation among parents, teachers, and students. The high-school principal can render a distinct service to parent-teacher education by including a study and a discussion of the purposes, policies, and achievements of PTA in the in-service education program for teachers.

The objects of a high-school PTA may be similar to those of the elementary-school PTA. The program and enabling activities of the high-school PTA must be identified with the purposes and curriculum of secondary education. Recognition and concern must be given to the interests and needs of high-school students, teachers, and parents of youth. The principal can be most helpful in developing a PTA steering committee that represents students, teachers, and laymen. This committee may undertake to answer such questions as (1) Why is a PTA a necessary part of a high-school program?, (2) What

can be done to secure the interest and support of the students in developing a PTA?, (3) What activities can the PTA sponsor that will demonstrate to students, teachers, and parents that the PTA program can be of useful service to all members of the school community?, (4) What can students do that will enable them to serve as contributing and participating members of the high-school PTA program?, (5) How can the PTA function as a leadership and also co-ordinating agency in motivating participation in parent-teacher-student education?

KEEPING THE PUBLIC INFORMED

A high-school PTA can be an effective medium for creating on the part of laymen an understanding of and support for democratic education. Through study groups, forums, and special lectures the members of the PTA may recognize the difference between authoritarian education and self-education, between imposed discipline and self-controlled discipline, between a curriculum that prepares for community citizenship and a curriculum that gives major emphasis to preparation for college, between authoritarian methods in teaching and creative methods in teaching. As members of the PTA come to understand the meaning, purposes, and importance of a socially significant high-school curriculum, they will be prepared to protect the school program from the criticism of individuals and groups unfriendly to democratic education. The PTA can be the principal's major source for assistance and support when working with the faculty to design a school program that gives students valuable preparation for socially useful living during 1950-2000 A. D.

Each member of the community makes his own interpretation of the high-school program. Lack of information or misinformation can prevent the layman from having an interest in and from giving support to the school. A PTA can render an educational service by accepting responsibility to interpret the school to the laymen. The officers and members of the PTA may, with the help of such departments of the school as art, journalism, English, social science, prepare and send to parents letters and reports that give information about the needs, the curriculum, and the achievements of the school. Students may help by preparing announcements and news releases for the local paper. The PTA may appoint a parent-teacher-student committee to make a survey of the high school and make its report at a PTA meeting. Radio and television broadcasts may be prepared that give information about various features of the school. Some of the PTA meetings may be used for forums, panels, and group discussions designed to help parents to learn about and to appraise the curriculum and instructional methods of the school. The success of the PTA in interpreting the school to the community depends largely on the leadership and co-operation of the secondary-school principal. A community that understands the high-school program will give constructive support to the school administrators and faculty.

SERVICES

The principal can assist the officers of the high-school PTA in determining the kind of services that the members may sponsor in the interest of the welfare of the students. Socially useful work is the most effective way to develop co-operation between students and the parents. Some of the services that some associations have found to be recognized by the students are: (1) a survey of the recreational facilities of the community; (2) forums where parents and students discuss problems and topics of mutual interest; (3) participation in the operation of the library or the cafeteria; (4) interest in and support of such students activities as assembly programs, music concerts, college and career day, athletic events; (5) providing opportunity for part-time employment; (6) sponsorship of field trips and conducted tours; and (7) establishing scholarship fund for worthy students. High-school students, desire to be independent of and also dependent upon their parents. In the degree that the PTA can be more active in working with and for the students, the association will be recognized and will be accepted by students as a valuable part of the high-school program.

Another opportunity of the high school PTA is to share with the school administration in providing a program of adult education. Through joint sponsorship, the high school may provide afternoon or evening classes in art, speech, dramatics, physical education, home economics, wood and shop craft, etc. Short courses, lecture series, and discussion sessions may be planned that deal with problems and issues of timely interest. One of the next developments of great importance in secondary education may be in the utilization of the school's resources in providing educational opportunities for the youth who have been graduated and for the adults. The high-school PTA can make a significant service to the community by accepting leadership in designing and in providing opportunities for adults to engage in continued learning related to a person's vocation or recreational interest.

Education for world citizenship is one of the goals of the high-school program. The local PTA can give valuable assistance in achieving this goal. The officers and members can share with the school faculty in planning curriculum experiences that give youth the opportunity to study the geography, culture, and government of the people of different countries. The PTA may share with the board of education in developing plans for the school to participate in the Exchange of Teachers Program. Plans may be worked out for employing qualified teachers from other countries to teach for a period in the school and for giving members of the faculty the opportunity to teach in other countries. It may be possible for the PTA to co-operate in planning a conducted tour to other countries in the summer or during the school year for a group of high-school students. The PTA has the opportunity to co-operate with teachers and students in planning special programs that

give meaning to the purposes and activities of United Nations and of UNESCO. Education is the most effective instrument for securing during the "Cold War" campaign the conditions and the human desire for world peace.

ACCOMPLISHMENT

The high-school PTA has progressed from the time when it sponsored activities to raise money to purchase library books, uniforms for the band, equipment for the football team, or furniture for the faculty room. The PTA has become a leadership program in parent-teacher-youth education. With the assistance of the high-school principal, the officers strive to plan a year's program that will enable the laymen to understand the need for continued improvement in the school curriculum, in the standards for the selection of teachers, in salaries that will attract and will retain competent teachers, and in classroom materials and instructional methods. The support of laymen is needed to keep open for youth the opportunity for mental inquiry and for self-education.

The curriculum must help youth learn for the cultural heritage and also provide for youth the means to study conditions and trends in the contemporary culture so that they may be prepared to play with vision, courage, and intelligence their role as builders of a greater American heritage. As the high-school PTA adapts its purposes and enabling activities to this educational objective, it will earn and will prove its co-ordinated role in secondary education. The officers of the PTA look to the high-school principal for leadership in developing a program that will serve the needs of youth, the needs of the community, and that will serve the directive goals for world understanding and world peace. The PTA has now become a co-ordinated program in parent-teacher-student education that seeks to improve the psycho-cultural maturity of all members of the community.

PANEL DISCUSSION TOPIC:

What Are the Purposes and Activities of a Parent-Teacher Association in a High School?

DISCUSSANTS:

Peter Holm, Principal, South High School, Denver, Colorado.

Henry Meentz, Principal, North High School, Omaha, Nebraska.

Mrs. John E. Hayes, President, National Congress of Parents and Teachers, Chicago, Illinois.

Mrs. Edward N. Howell, Swannanoa, North Carolina; Chairman, Committee on High-School Service, National Congress of Parents and Teachers.

Discussion Groups

Tuesday, February 21, 2:30 - 4:15 P. M.

Group I—West Concourse Vestibule

TOPIC: Teachers Discuss Their Problems With Their Principals.

CHAIRMAN: *C. Herbert Taylor*, Principal, Cranston High School, Cranston, Rhode Island.

PANEL OF TEACHERS:

Meryle Shamberger, Teacher of Common Learnings, West Junior High School, Kansas City, Missouri.

Gayle T. Chubb, Teacher of Science, Southwest High School, Kansas City, Missouri.

PANEL OF PRINCIPALS:

Paul M. Mitchum, Principal, Pipkin Junior High School, Springfield, Missouri.

Norman B. Scharer, Principal, Alhambra City High School, Alhambra, California.

In this panel a frank presentation was made by selected teachers of their most urgent problems to principals.

Group II—Room 403

CHAIRMAN: *Russell H. Rupp*, Principal, Shaker Heights High School, Cleveland, Ohio.

INTERROGATORS AND CONSULTANTS:

Leslie O. Johnson, Principal, Gloucester High School, Gloucester, Massachusetts.

J. Cliff Harper, Executive Secretary, Alabama High-School Athletic Association, Montgomery, Alabama.

What Standards and Policies for Interscholastic Athletics?

HARRY J. MOORE

THE Joint Committee on Standards for Interscholastic Athletics is comprised of eighteen members, six appointed by the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, six by the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation, and six by the National Federation of State High-School Athletic Associations. In addition, the executive secretaries of the three associations are *ex-officio* members of the Committee.

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It is interesting to note that eighteen members of the Committee reside east of the Mississippi and the other three are residents of Arkansas, Nebraska, and California respectively. Those members who were able to attend held a meeting in New York on October 25, and in Washington, D. C., on December 15. The time and distances involved made it impossible for me to participate in these meetings, so that this report is a statement of my personal views on some problems we are facing out West. It is not a minority report nor does it necessarily express the point of view of the Committee. Let us say that it is an attempt to analyze some reactions to problems arising west of the Rockies and particularly in the state of California, although I am certain that the situations mentioned are not limited to any one section of the country.

In attempting to set standards or policies for interscholastic athletics, one of our major problems is to resolve the differences of opinion among such groups as nonathletic students, parents, the lay public, sports writers, school administrators, and athletes. Perhaps we could bring about a more common acceptance of our policies if we took these groups into our confidence in the earlier stages of our planning. It also might result in the modification of some of our own ideas in regard to rules and regulations.

Let us look at the question of regulating the distance to be traveled by competing teams. In comparing other sections of the country with the West, we should keep in mind that California schools compete in an area whose length is approximately the same as the distance from Chicago to New Orleans and in which the climatic differences are similar in many respects.

The California Interscholastic Federation is not a state association in the ordinary sense, but a federation of seven district associations. There is more than 1,000 miles distance between some schools within the state boundaries, so that the limitation of a 600-mile round trip for interstate competition as written in the National Federation by-laws limits competition within our state. Also, due to the comparative isolation of schools beyond our borders in Nevada, Arizona, and Mexico, we have permitted these high schools to affiliate with the California Interscholastic Federation in order to give them an adequate athletic schedule. We are often urged to revoke the 600-mile travel limit, chiefly on account of pressures from Chambers of Commerce and others, to permit competition between the large schools in the northern and southern parts of the state which involve total distances of over 1,000 miles.

Keeping in mind the various groups and agencies which have a real interest in the interscholastic program, may I point out some of those practices in which there exists a lack of common purpose or understanding. These are a source of friction and a challenge to those who seek for har-

mony and a more general acceptance of a common philosophy as it applies to our interscholastic program.

SOME OF THE PROBLEMS ENCOUNTERED

Let us give some thought to the giving of awards and the various philosophies which we must face. Among school men, we often find the belief that many awards should be given, and that the boy who has given his best effort on behalf of the football team should receive his letter even though he did not succeed in meeting the specific requirements. I can point to one school where the faculty insisted on such a plan and it resulted in a boycott against wearing the school letter, because those boys who felt that they had earned their letters by virtue of exceptional ability and the number of quarters in which they had played refused to wear a letter which in their estimation had been cheapened by the unusually large number awarded.

The question of the size of letters has received a great deal of consideration. The philosopher contends that all letter awards should be the same size, regardless of the size of the boy. In other words, there should be no difference in the letter awarded to a boy on the varsity football team and one on a minor sport or weight team. Among the students, we usually find arguments in favor of distinctive sizes for the weight teams. Again we find the members of the band or other nonathletic organizations seeking awards similar in appearance to those given athletic teams and the athletes vociferously opposing such a practice.

The Associated Student Councils of the State of California have been working on this problem for several years and have not yet succeeded in developing a plan acceptable to the state.

The awarding of sweaters, leather jackets, and gold athletic emblems seems to be highly favored by athletes, and rules to the contrary are bitterly opposed by parents. In many cases newspapers, business firms, and athletic foundations seek to circumvent these rules by making such awards after the athlete has finished his eight semesters of athletic eligibility.

We have accepted the advice of physicians and experts in the field of physical education who have provided us with evidence that contact sports, particularly football, are harmful to the preadolescent boy, so many of us have not included these sports below the senior high-school level. In California we do not permit a boy to compete in varsity football until he is fifteen years of age in order to insure proper bone development and maturity. Again we find the public not accepting our philosophy and we have "kid" football teams playing under the sponsorship of some movie star, a service club, or business firm. These groups hold football carnivals, elect queens among girls of junior high-school age, and imitate, in every possible way, the bowl games now so common at the New Year's season.

We have ironed out many of our difficulties with the American Legion with regard to their baseball program. At first they set up as their objec-

tives the helping of the underprivileged boy and the providing of worth-while summer activity for boys with too much spare time on their hands. However, the setting up of machinery for determining a national championship and the zeal for winning teams soon brought the Legion in conflict with the high-school baseball program, and serious misunderstandings arose. However, most of these problems have been solved to the satisfaction of those in authority in the high schools and in the Legion, although the situation does not seem to be clearly understood by the rank and file of the organization. This is evidenced by resolutions passed at recent district conventions.

Conditions change with the times, and in the not-too-distant future airplane travel may reduce distances to the point where our 600-mile travel limit may seem a relic of the automobile age when 50 miles per hour was a determining factor. California has already been solicited by the schools of Hawaii to permit athletic competition with the schools of the Islands. They remind us that one can get to Honolulu by plane as quickly as one can go from Los Angeles to San Francisco by train. Maybe we school men are not keeping up with the air age.

As this report is more or less of a preamble to the interim report to be made by John K. Archer, chairman of the Joint Committee on Standards for Interscholastic Athletics, I have not attempted to give the answers to all of our problems. However, I do offer for your consideration some questions which are still to be faced in many sections of the country and respectfully suggest that, in the final solution of these problems, we must take into our confidence our students, parents, and the public in general. It is essential that they know of our motives and our philosophy, and I hope that, with mutual understanding, we will secure their co-operation and support in carrying out an athletic program that will have as its fundamental philosophy, the physical, and spiritual welfare of the boy.

Standards in Athletics for Boys in Secondary Schools¹

JOHN K. ARCHER

ATHLETICS are most important and vital in the program of education for youth and adults. Athletics should be used to develop and promote worth-while educational goals. If athletics are to serve useful ends, they must be wisely guided, thoroughly supported, and wholeheartedly accepted. Parti-

¹ Standards of girls' athletic activities are to be found in *Desirable Practices in Athletics for Girls and Women*—The National Section on Women's Athletics of the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C. 1949.

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cipants, parents, and educators must understand the dynamic character of athletics—a force for good or a force for evil. All who are involved must insist that athletics conducted for our school youth shall be organized, developed, and administered as a vital and effective aspect of American culture. The responsibility of the school, its administrator, its staff, and its membership, begin when a boy becomes a member of the school and continues until he has been graduated or has withdrawn from it. This responsibility involves the boy's way of living, his attitudes toward life, his views of human relationships, and the ways of promoting desirable changes in his behavior. *This responsibility rests primarily with the school. It cannot be shirked or taken lightly.* Will we as educators—as leaders of youth—assume this obligation and responsibility?

There are a number of controversies and misunderstandings in the present-day school athletic program that are causing grave concern.

- A. One of these is the purpose of athletics. It involves such questions as, "Are athletics for competition and to develop co-operation?", "Should one play to win and be judged only on such results?", or "Are there other vital educational values?"
- B. Another problem is focused around leadership. To clarify the issues here, there should be standards for the selection of leaders, their preparation, and the procedures in carrying out leadership duties.
- C. A third basic problem is the nature and scope of the administration and supervision of athletics. It involves the sanction of contests, all-star games, bowl games, alumni administrative participation, procurement and use of facilities, financing, athletic schedules, conferences and associations, tournaments, pre-season and post-season games and practices, player and spectator control, recruiting, proselyting, subsidization of players, public relations, girls' athletics, and exploitation.
- D. Another important problem is grouped around the participants. Involved here are considerations and standards of eligibility, parity of competition, traditional rivals, protection of participants, amateurism, and awards.
- E. A fifth problem is concerned with activities. Are the activities selected, organized, and adapted to the needs of the participant?
- F. Finally, there are problems concerned with the values and outcomes proposed and realized through interscholastic athletics. The need for standards and criteria for determining the worth-whileness of our interscholastic athletic programs is evident.

The National Federation of State High-School Athletic Associations, the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, and the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation are co-operating through this Joint Committee to recognize the fine progress that has already

been made in the establishment of athletic standards, to indicate the best practices involved therein, and to project standards—their understandings, procedures, and interpretations—so that every secondary school may look critically at itself and, as a result, provide an effective educational athletic program.

GUIDING POLICIES

Basic to any consideration of acceptable standards in interscholastic athletics for secondary schools is this statement of the *Guiding Policies* for the administration, and the development of a program of athletics for the youth of our schools:

1. Athletics are to be an integral part of the secondary-school program and should receive financial support from tax funds on the same basis as other recognized parts of the total educational program. As a part of the curriculum, high-school sports are to be conducted by secondary-school authorities and all instruction provided by competent, qualified, and accredited teachers so that desirable definite educational aims may be achieved.
2. Athletics are for the benefit of all youth. The aim is maximum participation—a sport for every boy and every girl in a sport—in a well-balanced intramural and interscholastic program with emphasis on safe and healthful standards of competition.
3. Athletics are to be conducted under rules which provide for equitable competition, sportsmanship, fair play, health, and safety. High-school sports are for amateurs who are *bona fide* undergraduate high-school students. These youth must be protected from exploitation and the dangers of professionalism. Pre-season, post-schedule, post-season, all-star games or similar types of promotions are not consistent with this principle. It is necessary to develop a full understanding of the need for observance of local, league, sectional, state, and national standards in athletics.

The Guiding Policies are expressed in more complete detail in the report of a previous Joint Committee of the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation and the National Federation of State High-School Athletic Associations as "Cardinal Athlete Principles."²

RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE JOINT COMMITTEE ON STANDARDS IN ATHLETICS

For the purpose of promoting and stimulating safe and healthful participation among a high percentage of secondary-school boys in a wide variety of wholesome athletic activities and after careful study of the problems which

² American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation, National Education Association. "Cardinal Athletic Principles," *Journal of Health and Physical Education*, September 1947. Page 7; also available as a reprint from the Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C. 5 cents per reprint.

have been created by certain types of interscholastic contests (including meets, tournaments, national championships, contests which require distant travel, contests which are sponsored by individuals or organizations other than a high school or group of high schools, and contests between teams of high-school all-stars), the Joint Committee makes the following recommendations. The Joint Committee urges that all of the organizations represented adopt these *Major Interpretations* and place them in the form of policies, standards, or regulations in accordance with the established practice of each organization:

1. The program of athletics should be developed with due regard for health and safety standards as set forth in *Suggested School Health Policies*³ on pages 34 and 35.
2. Good citizenship must result from all coaching and from all interschool competition. The education of the youth of the nation fails unless it creates the proper ideals and attitudes both in the game and off the field.
3. The ten "Cardinal Athletic Principles"⁴ are accepted as expressing the policies of our organizations, and it is urged that these be displayed in the literature of our organizations.
4. All schools shall use reasonable care in avoiding any participation in a contact sport between participants of normal high-school age and participants who are appreciably above or below normal high-school age.
5. All schools shall fully observe and abide by the spirit and letter of established eligibility requirements which have been democratically developed by each of the state athletic associations.
6. Each state athletic association should attempt to secure the co-operation which would provide a plan of continuous eligibility from high school to college.
7. For competition in which only one state is involved, no school shall participate in a meet or tournament involving more than two schools unless such contest has been approved by its state high-school association or its delegated constituent or allied divisions.
8. The use of school facilities or members of the school staff shall not be permitted in connection with any post-season or all-star contest unless such contest has been sanctioned by the state athletic association.
9. A school shall not permit any employee or official to encourage or collaborate in any negotiations which may lead a high-school athlete to lose his eligibility through the signing of a professional contract.
10. The solicitation of athletes by higher institutions is unethical and unprofessional. It destroys the amateur nature of athletics, tends to com-

³ National Education Association. *Suggested School Health Policies*. Washington 6, D. C.: The Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W. 1946.

⁴ American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation, National Education Association. *Op. cit.*

mercialize the individual and the program, promotes the use of athletic skill for gain, and takes an unfair and unjust advantage of competitors.

11. In all interstate athletic contests, each athlete shall compete under eligibility rules which are at least as restrictive as those adopted by the state high-school athletic association of his state, except in the case of nonmember schools which are not eligible for membership in their state associations.
12. No school shall compete in any of the following contests unless such contest has been sanctioned by each of the interested state high-school athletic associations through the National Federation: (a) any interstate tournament or meet in which three or more schools participate; (b) any interstate two-school contest which involves a round trip exceeding 600 miles; (c) any interstate two-school contest (regardless of the distance to be traveled which is sponsored by an individual or an organization other than a member high school.
13. No basketball tournament which is purported to be for interstate high-school championship shall be sanctioned, and no basketball tournament involving schools of more than one state shall be sanctioned unless the tournament is purely community in character.
14. No contest which is purported to be for a national high-school championship in any sport shall be sanctioned.

Group III—Room 404

CHAIRMAN: *Samuel V. Noe*, Principal, Louisville Girls' High School, Louisville, Kentucky.

INTERROGATORS AND CONSULTANTS:

C. F. Newell, Principal, Tuscaloosa Senior High School, Tuscaloosa, Alabama.

S. E. Nelson, Principal, Central High School, Chattanooga, Tennessee.

How Influential Can the National Honor Society and the National Junior Honor Society Be in the Secondary School?

MARTIN M. MANSPERGER

PURPOSES FOR WHICH SCHOOLS ARE ORGANIZED

HISTORY is replete with the fact that schools are organized by men and nations for the express purpose of promoting and extending religious beliefs, economic theories, and systems of government. The schools of the Roman Empire were established and supported as propaganda *media* to train

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young Romans to live and work in the Roman Empire. Young Britons, for more than two hundred years, were trained in schools supported directly or indirectly by governments for the express purpose of training future citizens to live and work in and for the British Commonwealth of Nations.

In recent years we have seen how the Germans, the Italians, and the Russians have used their schools to train young people in the way of Nazism, Fascism, and Communism. Hitler, Mussolini, and Stalin will stand out in history as the great masters of the propaganda technique. The schools established and supported by the countries over which these men ruled for a time served as workshops in which young Nazis, Fascists, and Communists were trained to serve the state.

The American schools established by our forefathers were likewise founded on the principle that young Americans needed training if the American way of life was to be preserved and extended to future generations. These ancestors of ours were free men. Fundamental rights had been guaranteed to them under the Constitution and the Bill of Rights, which were a part of their American heritage.

The first concern, therefore, of our forefathers was that their children should learn of their great heritage of freedom. In America every man, woman, and child could worship God according to the dictates of their conscience. They enjoyed freedom of speech and of the press. They have the privilege of electing their own leaders. The state existed to serve man, not man to serve the state.

Our forefathers had been nurtured in the economic system of free and competitive enterprise. They believed in a free, competitive system where man was challenged to do his best. They did not subscribe to the popular fallacy which is rampant in America today which says that man is not capable of taking care of his economic future, but must look to government for security from the cradle to the grave.

MEN ARE NOT CREATED EQUAL

Economic freedom was recognized, therefore, by those who founded our public schools as the basis on which all other freedoms must rest. They did not believe or subscribe to the theory that all men are created equal. They subscribed to the parable spoken by the Master of men two thousand years ago that some men are born with one talent, others with two talents, and still others with five or ten talents. Our public schools were established and organized, therefore, to train young Americans in the art of developing their talents in accordance with their God-given endowments.

Competition was early recognized as a part of the American system. Spelling bees, debating societies, and literary societies in the early schools were an outward expression of the desire of young Americans for wholesome competition with their fellows. To keep this competition within reasonable limits,

rules were drawn up by the group in the best American tradition. In later years, athletic contests were organized to give expression to this fundamental desire for competition. Baseball, the great American ball game, had its beginning in the sand lots adjoining the country schools and the urban schools of yesterday. High-school and college football, which has been so popular in recent years, is a further expression of this competitive spirit which has been accepted from the very beginning of the public school movement as a part of the great American tradition.

Near the beginning of the present century, the so-called extracurricular program had begun to be recognized as an integral part of the secondary-school program. It was about this time that school men began to feel that pupils who took part in these extracurricular activities were getting more recognition than they deserved. The athlete, in particular, was being showered with recognition by the local press, community groups, and by the school and student body, while the outstanding student, interested in the acquisition of knowledge and in the development of needed skills, was going without notice.

THE NATIONAL HONOR SOCIETY WAS BORN

Out of this conviction and under the leadership of such educational stalwarts as J. G. Masters, of Omaha, Nebraska, Merle Prunty, of Tulsa, Oklahoma, C. P. Briggs, of Lakewood, Ohio, George Buck, of Indianapolis, Indiana, and H. V. Church, secretary of the national organization for many years, the National Honor Society was born. Edward Rynearson, who is often referred to as the father and founder of the National Honor Society, made the following significant remarks on the work of the organizing committee which reported to the Atlantic City Meeting of our Association in 1921:

In drawing up the constitution, the committee was faced with the necessity of providing an organization broad enough to meet all of the varying needs of these numerous societies. Scholarship, only, seemed too narrow; where tried, the society had, in the words of Dr. Powell, "got the stigma of being high-browish." On the other hand, there was great danger of according too little recognition to scholarship. After considerable discussion, the committee fixed upon character, scholarship, leadership, and service as the fundamental virtues most useful to society and, therefore, most worthy of encouragement. The constitution lays down general rules regarding officers, eligibility, *etc.*, but, in the main, leaves the details of government to each chapter. The standards of the schools in which chapters may be established must be equal to those schools accredited by such agencies as the North Central Association. . . . Authority is vested in a national council of nine members.

At the 1922 meeting of our Association in Chicago, Illinois, the National Honor Society charter was approved and the present emblem—the keystone and the flaming torch—was adopted.

HONOR SOCIETY MEETS WITH GENERAL APPROVAL

The National Honor Society, emphasizing scholarship, character, leadership, and service as the four cardinal principles of secondary education, has met with overwhelming approval among the schools of the nation. In a short

period of twenty-nine years, chapters have been organized in secondary schools in every state in the nation and in most of the secondary schools under American leadership, in foreign countries.

It is appropriate, therefore, that we at this time ask ourselves this question: "What are some of the reasons for this phenomenal growth of the National Honor Society?" In answer to this question, I would like to submit for your consideration the results of a survey which was made in Nassau County, located about twenty-five miles east of New York City on Long Island, New York. This survey not only represents the point of view of faculty advisers and administrators, but also active members of chapters who are presently members of senior classes in high schools on Long Island.

RESPONSE TO QUESTIONNAIRE

QUESTION No. 1: *What has been the Honor Society Chapter's greatest contribution to your school?*

Some typical student replies—

- (a) It has served as an incentive for all students to attain the most of which they are capable in scholarship, leadership, and service.
- (b) Our Chapter has served as a stabilizing influence in an educational system which otherwise might become lethargic.
- (c) The Honor Society has consistently served as the ultimate goal in our high-school's academic circles.
- (d) It has given members a sense of achievement and has provided a goal for students to aim at.
- (e) We have tried to make our chapter an honorary group for those students who have attained our high purposes, thus inspiring other students to better themselves.
- (f) The greatest contribution the Honor Society has made to our high school is the inspiration it has given to the students. Previously, the good scholar and loyal school citizen was seriously neglected in our school as far as recognition by the student body was concerned. Now, membership in the National Honor Society is regarded by all as a highly prized attainment. It stands as an incentive for all-around improvement, and its members receive the recognition they deserve.

Some typical faculty replies—

- (a) Each year our chapter holds a tea for the benefit of the alumni. This tea is held during the Christmas vacation at a time when all alumni may attend. During the school year, our chapter also sponsors one or more assembly programs which are of great interest to the pupils of the school. Trips to the United Nations have also been sponsored by our chapter.
- (b) In my estimation, the Honor Society's greatest contributions to the school are indirect. This organization's ideals are manifested by the strivings of sincere students to obtain membership in our chapter.

In this way not only the school but also the individual student is benefited.

- (c) The Honor Society has been a morale-builder in our school. Hard-working students, "the salt of the earth," are at last recognized and made more important than the athlete. There is beginning to grow a feeling that athletic honor and glory is quite ephemeral and that the honor of being elected to the National Honor Society is much more important.

QUESTION No. 2: *In what way does your Honor Society chapter influence your school?*

Some typical replies—

- (a) Students who would ordinarily be "stuffed shirts" are made to realize that to be a member of the Honorary Society, they must develop their character along more understanding and social lines. I do honestly think that possibility of becoming a member of the Honor Society affects the personality of many students in our school.
- (b) The Honor Society inducts students who have made outstanding contributions to the school and are considered above average in character, leadership, scholarship, and service. Induction into the Honor Society is not only a reward for outstanding achievement, but it also stimulates members to greater effort to be worthy of their membership.
- (c) The Honor Society spurs the leadership of the school to greater heights and often makes leaders out of followers.
- (d) Honor Society influence in our school mixes all the attributes which go into character and comes up with a brew known as personality.
- (e) Our chapter's influence has resulted in a growing respect among the students of the school for the student who works and makes good grades in school.
- (f) The influence of the Honor Society is reflected in a marked increase in pupil willingness to serve the school in such positions as office and guidance helpers, stage hands, etc. We are now beginning to get competition in these fields. More pupils are anxious to serve the necessary internship required in various student positions in order to gain recognition as leaders. Pupils see that accepting and carrying out small responsibilities lead to more important opportunities for leadership.
- (g) Pupils are becoming cognizant of the value and meaning of real scholarship. Recognition of its value creates a desire to attain it.
- (h) Pupils are aware of the significance of character and its value. They are striving to attain character through participation in school activities and they are becoming more critical of its lack in their fellow students.

REPLIES CONSIDERED REPRESENTATIVE

If these replies are to be considered significant and representative of Honor Society chapters throughout the country, the Honor Society movement has had and continues to have a *wholesome, positive influence*—not only on members of the society, but on other students as well. The founders of the National Honor Society movement were probably wiser than they knew when they selected character, scholarship, leadership, and service as the four-fold measure of the high-school student eligible to receive the highest honor which the secondary school has to bestow. These cardinal objectives of secondary education take on a new meaning for students who have the privilege of attending high schools in which Honor Society chapters are located.

Character is no longer a negative quality. Under Honor Society influence, character becomes a positive and expanding force in secondary education. Just to be good is no longer sufficient—students must be good for something.

Scholarship has lost its narrow connotation of yesterday. The “book worm” is no longer considered eligible for high scholastic honors.

Leadership is no longer limited to the few—it now belongs to many.

Service is no longer restricted to the few, self-sacrificing students of our schools, but is now recognized as a desirable attainment by students in every phase of school life.

CONCLUSION

It has been my privilege to organize chapters of the National Honor Society in five schools located in three states of the union. My first chapter was organized in Barnesville, Ohio, in the fall of 1921, the very year that the National Honor Society was born. We received our charter from the National Council in 1922. Our school was among the first of the high schools throughout the nation to be so honored.

It is my considered opinion, after twenty-seven years of experience with National Honor Society chapters, that this movement can be the most influential force for good in the American high school today.

How Influential Can the National Honor Society and the National Junior Honor Society Be in the Secondary School?

HOMER L. BERRY

THE National Honor Society and the National Junior Honor Society can be as influential as the sponsors of local chapters would like them to be. The National Council requires that students be selected and elected on basis

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of Scholarship, Leadership, Service, Citizenship, and Character as shown in the school. It encourages the exploration and development of these qualities in students. It identifies the potential leaders for school and country, which our democracy will surely need for the assurance of a secure and strong America. It was the purpose of the founders that the organizations should remain flexible and readily adaptable to the prevailing policies of the local administration of the school, within the broad principles of stated standards of the Honor Societies. The month-to-month conduct of the activities of a chapter must remain as the responsibility of the local chapter, or the sponsor, or the principal of the school. Each chapter is allowed to write its own constitution, one that would best serve its school and community. This allows each chapter to set up its own standards of Scholarship, Leadership, Service, and Character that each member is required to maintain.

The National Honor Societies and their activities have become an essential function in the administration of a modern secondary school. Their problems are the problems of education in general. No administrator can expect an easy or ready solution to the new and recurring issues in secondary education. The National Honor Societies in their growth and influence in several thousand schools since 1921, have established for these schools high professional aims and goals for secondary education, such as—

1. An enthusiasm for good scholarship throughout the school
2. An encouragement of a desire for students to render service to the school and in the community
3. A plan for self-evaluation of the student of the potential elements of leadership qualities within him.
4. A stimulus to the student to observe and practice those acts of others that develop strength of character
5. An encouragement to the student to continue his learning and his education.

The National Honor Societies have been the influential educational agencies that have:

1. Defined and set high standards of conduct and achievement for the student
2. Recognized, democratically, the achievement of students and the qualities of leadership in these students
3. Become national in scope, thus giving significance and prestige to students who are included in their membership
4. Become recognized as school organizations of high potentialities because of a constructive and challenging school program
5. Established *STUDENT LIFE* as their official organ and as a student magazine, partly pictorial, devoted to reporting and developing the best activities in secondary schools throughout the country

6. Emphasized rank more than school marks in the development of the scholastic achievement of the student
7. Became organizations with high standards, yet flexible enough for local administration to meet their aims and ideals of good school administration
8. Always stood for the advancement and improvement of the professional interests of education. They have been kept free from commercialism through central control and have never obligated or required an elected student to pay an initiation fee or an annual assessment.

ACTIVITIES PROMOTED BY CHAPTERS

The school and community projects carried on by chapters of the National Honor Societies are many and varied. Initiative, resourcefulness, and the unbounded energy of youth, stimulated by a sincere desire to render service to the school and community, are evident in the type and character of the projects briefly listed below. The school, and community, through the activities of the National Honor Societies, become the educational agencies, wherein potential leadership qualities are discovered and developed. The constructive efforts of youth, with proper motivation and direction, can result in a better and happier world.

1. Activities related to the beginning of the school year
 - A. Escorted new students during registration
 - B. Acted as big brother and sister to new students
 - C. Conducted freshmen orientation program
2. Assembly programs
 - A. Installation and induction ceremonies
 - B. Responsibility for a few programs for the year
 - C. Special day program
3. Charitable activities
 - A. Collect food for needy families on Thanksgiving day
 - B. Sell tuberculosis seals
 - C. Collect for March of Dimes
4. Financial activities
 - A. Sell magazine subscriptions
 - B. Sell tickets for athletic games
 - C. Help in projects sponsored by the PTA
5. Gifts to school
 - A. Stand for auditorium
 - B. Improvement of school grounds
6. Recognition of special achievement
 - A. Compile and publish honor roll
 - B. Tutored retarded students
 - C. Make felt awards for Citizenship and Scholarship

7. School service

- A. Ushers at special events
- B. Act as guides and reception committee for guests
- C. Give clerical assistance in school office and library
- D. Assist teachers in checking attendance, marking papers, *etc.*
- E. Patrol halls
- F. Operate lost and found department
- G. Operate book store
- H. Substitute for teachers in classrooms

8. Social activities

- A. Picnics
- B. Dances
- C. Parties for members
- D. Reception for faculty

The founders of these organizations established the National Honor Societies to stimulate the scholarship, leadership, service, and character of the students in the secondary schools of this country. As they have grown in numbers and have extended their scope, their ultimate objectives have become that of raising the secondary schools of the United States to a higher plane. It is the present hope of sponsors to direct and to center the enthusiasm of the youth of their land, as they take their place in the life of our nation, to the end that they will raise secondary schools to levels of more effective service in the training of the young people within their influence.

Group IV—East Concourse Vestibule

CHAIRMAN: *George C. Galphin*, Chairman, Department of Psychology and Education, Drexel Institute of Technology, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.

INTERROGATORS AND CONSULTANTS:

B. M. Hanna, Principal, Norwood High School, Norwood, Ohio.

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What Place for Audio-Visual Materials in the School Program?

CHARLES F. SCHULLER

THE development of a place for audio-visual materials in the school program is predicated on the assumption that audio-visual materials have something significant to contribute to instruction. This fact is not seriously questioned by administrators who have become acquainted with some of the

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research of the past thirty years, or with the results obtained by those of their teachers who have been making effective use of audio-visual materials. Since this research evidence is summarized in Dr. de Kieffer's paper, we shall proceed directly to the "what" and "how" aspects of developing a suitable place for audio-visual materials in our school programs. I should like to approach this question through a realistic consideration of what appear to be some of the basic problems facing school administrators in connection with audio-visual programs in their schools.

UNDERSTANDING THE FUNCTION OF AUDIO-VISUAL MATERIALS

In the first place, it is necessary to develop in the minds of both teachers and administrators a rather clear-cut understanding of the real function of audio-visual materials in any school program. This function is nothing more or less than the *improvement of instruction*! We know from research findings that school pupils can learn more efficiently with the help of well-chosen and well-used films, filmstrips, recordings, charts, pictures, and field trips, *but do your teachers know it?* A survey conducted among 180,000 teachers in twenty-nine states in 1949 showed that only one teacher in fourteen, or seven per cent, was actually using audio-visual materials in classroom work.¹ Typically, I get the reaction in my in-service training courses in audio-visual instruction that, prior to taking the course, the teachers had no idea of the scope or the possibilities in the audio-visual field. It is not surprising that teachers frequently regard the area of audio-visual instruction as something slightly novel, mysterious, and relatively unrelated to the daily work of the school.

We use a film, filmstrip, picture, slide, recording, map, model, or any other kind of audio-visual material because it does a particular teaching job better than can be done in any other way available to the teacher—and *for no other reason*. To be more specific, it may be more helpful to point out that we do not use a film simply because it happens to be in school on that day and because Miss Jones' ninth-grade English class is using it. Likewise, we do not use a particular film simply because it happens to be free or inexpensive. Nor do we use teaching films in a case where our assembly program has suddenly "washed out," and we need something to fill in the gap. You may have heard of cases in which all of the pupils were invited into the auditorium to see three such films as *The Corn Farmer*, *The Carbon Oxygen Cycle*, and *Canals of England*. There is, of course, a place for films in auditorium programs, but the selection and use of such films must be dictated by the needs of the program and not by expediency.

In schools where administrators, supervisors, and teachers have only a vague concept of what audio-visual materials can do, it would clearly be difficult to achieve results with these materials. On the other hand, in those sys-

¹ *National Guidance Evaluation and Trend Studies*. Sponsored by the National Society for the Study of Education and other contributing organizations. (Data for 1949 as yet unpublished)

tems where the administrator and supervisory staffs have become conscious of the contribution to instruction which a well-organized audio-visual program can make, the results are far more likely to be significant. Curriculum committees under such circumstances incorporate suggestions for suitable films, filmstrips, bulletin board, and picture materials along with text and reference book lists in the resource units which are planned. Through faculty meetings and supervisory conferences, teachers are encouraged to incorporate appropriate materials of all kinds in their teaching procedures—and, what is equally important, they are assisted in getting these materials. In short, the audio-visual materials—the maps, charts, globes, models, films, slides, field trips, still pictures, and all the rest—have ceased to be regarded as something extra, as something special, or something mysterious. They are regarded as a normal, natural, completely integrated part of the teaching process.

Thus, in my judgment, the first answer to the question, "What Place For Audio-Visual Materials In The School Program?," is that they should be an integral part of the instructional experience of the pupil. These materials should be as accepted and as readily used, as available and as accessible to the teacher as are the text and reference materials with which most schools are well endowed at the present time.

FINANCING THE PROGRAM

No one needs to tell a school administrator that good things in schools, as elsewhere, cost money. He knows that his budget is the financial interpretation of his school program, and that, by and large, he gets what he pays for. It is no accident that those schools having productive audio-visual programs spend more money on them than does the average school. What are the facts?

In 1946, the N.E.A. report on audio-visual programs in 1,011 school systems revealed that from 11 cents to \$1.60 per pupil was being spent. This represented a median expenditure of slightly over 50 cents per pupil in all cities having audio-visual departments, and 30 cents in cities not having an audio-visual department. Parenthetically, expenditures in large cities of over 100,000 population were much smaller per pupil than in cities of from 2,500 to 5,000 population.² In annual surveys conducted by *See and Hear Magazine* in the spring of 1948 and again in 1949, reports from fifteen cities in 9 states indicated a rise of 272 per cent in five years in the amount per pupil devoted to the audio-visual program.³ In terms of "cash on the line," this represented a rise in average expenditures from 55½ cents to \$1.51 per pupil in these cities. New Castle, Pennsylvania, for example, spent 8 cents per pupil in 1942 on audio-visual materials and \$1.25 per pupil in 1947. While it is true that

² *Audio-Visual Education in City School Systems*. Research Bulletin XXIV, No. 4, National Education Association, December 1946, pages 159-161.

³ *See and Hear*. Audio-Visual Publication, Inc., May-June 1948, pages 21-24, May-June 1949, pages 16-17, Chicago, Illinois.

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these are spot examples and that the great bulk of school systems are not coming along to that extent, yet we have evidence that recognition in terms which mean something is on its way.

As of last spring, the annual school report to the state superintendent of public instruction in Wisconsin incorporated a section on the audio-visual program. This report revealed that in 168 village school systems, high schools spent on average 74 cents per pupil on the audio-visual program during 1948-49. In 109 Wisconsin city systems the over-all average expenditure for both elementary and secondary schools was 49 cents per pupil.

An analysis of the equipment available in 109 Wisconsin city school systems for the 1948-1949 period showed that on the average there was one 16-mm sound projector for every 454 pupils. Insofar as sound motion picture projectors are concerned, Wisconsin is just beginning to approach a reasonable status. Many of you will recall that the American Council study on administrative standards in 1944 recommended a sound projector for each 200 pupils or fraction thereof.⁴ In many communities where successful audio-visual programs are in effect the proportion of equipment to pupils is now approximating that standard. Marked progress is likewise being made in many county school systems. In Allegheny County, Pennsylvania, for example, the ratio of 16-mm sound projection equipment to pupils in September 1949 was one to 397 pupils, a ratio which represents a decided increase in the last two years.

Undeniably, the equipment picture is one side of the program which will require continuing attention and emphasis. A study by Professor P. W. Seagers, at Indiana University, covering needed development in school buildings and equipment in the United States during the next decade anticipates that over \$18,000,000 will be expended for audio-visual equipment in secondary schools by 1960. During the same period the more numerous and less well-provided elementary schools are expected to spend over \$50,000,000 for audio-visual equipment.⁵ These are but a few evidences that the audio-visual program has progressed to a point where it is receiving serious consideration in long-term planning, a need of which many administrators have long been cognizant.

A second answer to the question of the proper place for audio-visual materials in the school program, therefore, is that it should be accorded a place on the school budget commensurate with its importance in the learning process. Although the evidence indicates that real progress is being made in many school systems, adequate financial support for audio-visual programs is still found in relatively few secondary schools. The day is past, gentlemen, when PTA's and similar sources should be looked to as a significant source

⁴ Seaton, Helen Hardt. *A Measure for Audio-Visual Programs in Schools*. American Council on Education Washington, D. C. 1944, page 36.

⁵ Seagers, P. W. "Equipment Estimates for the Schools of the United States Until 1960." *School Executive* 68: 44-7, August, 1949.

of income for projection equipment and film rentals. If the audio-visual program has instructional merit, it should be financed by the school district in the same manner as any other justifiable school expenditure.

PROVIDING LEADERSHIP

A third point at which the administrator must determine the place to be accorded the audio-visual program in his school lies in the kind of leadership afforded. It is both the administrator's opportunity and his responsibility to provide conditions under which his teachers have a good opportunity for effective use of these materials of instruction. Frequently in working with teachers, I have received the comments, "I wish that my principal were taking this course. He just won't give us the things we ought to have." Having been both a teacher and, for ten years, a principal myself, I nod sympathetically and reply, "In all my experience, I have never met a principal who did not genuinely want the best instructional program he could possibly get for the pupils in his charge. If you can convince your principal that these materials will improve your instruction, I feel sure that somehow he will get them for you if he possibly can." I also advise these teachers to keep after you principals until they are successful. I tell them, as well, that some of you are reluctant to go ahead with additional expenditures because you know of projection equipment already in the schools which has been gathering dust for years, or which has been used as a substitute for teaching rather than as a teaching instrument.

These situations point to needs which the administrator is in a position to do something about. For one thing, it is necessary to provide leadership in the form of a building director or co-ordinator for your audio-visual program. This person must be an enthusiastic, capable individual. Professional training in audio-visual instruction is highly desirable and if he has not had it, he should be encouraged to get it at the first opportunity. Furthermore, the person selected for leadership in your audio-visual program must be given time to do his job. In a small system of only a few teachers, this person may well have to teach a full load, but he should have no other extracurricular responsibilities. If your school has as many as fifty teachers, your audio-visual co-ordinator needs at least half his time to do justice to the program. Where there are 100 or more teachers in a school system there should be, in addition, an audio-visual director who can devote his full time and energy to the program in both the elementary and secondary schools.

At some future time, teachers coming into your schools may have had the benefit of professional training in the selection and use of audio-visual materials. At the present time only about one teacher in ten has had such training, and indications are that it will be a number of years before teacher education institutions provide such an experience for all of their graduates. This means that the first and perhaps the greatest responsibility of any director is an in-service training program for those teachers already teaching

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in your schools. He needs, secondly, to see that the mechanical aspects of the program are well taken care of—that the projectors, operators, films, and other materials are where the teacher wants them when she wants them. As many of you are well aware, this is a problem of no small significance. It is he who must assist teachers in locating needed materials, in becoming familiar with various types of equipment, and with correct methods of utilization. It is he who sees to it that orders are channeled, that films and other materials are distributed as needed, and that equipment is kept in good condition. The pure mechanics of the program are such as to constitute a real handicap unless adequate provision is made for them.

These are several of the significant characteristics of an audio-visual program which merits an important place in your schools. The degree to which you as administrators familiarize yourselves and your teachers with the vast opportunities inherent in the audio-visual field, and the degree to which you provide realistic opportunities for your teachers through adequate financing and trained leadership—will be reflected in the quality not only of your audio-visual program, but in the over-all effectiveness of your entire program. For this, in the final analysis is the purpose and the place of audio-visual materials in your school program.

What Place for Audio-Visual Materials in the School Program?

ROBERT E. de KIEFFER

THE major problem of secondary education today is that of communicating ideas. How are we meeting this problem? Are we satisfied that we are using all of the tools of modern education, and using them effectively? Are the teachers of today familiar with the methods and techniques of mass communication at their disposal? Are the secondary schools meeting their obligations by preparing their students for living in our complex world? Are our high-school graduates equipped with the knowledge and skills which will make them effective citizens?

Modern technological developments which have given to the world the tools of both human freedom and destruction have left in their wake a residue of social problems for future generations to understand and untangle. The secondary schools of this country, have been given more and greater responsibilities in developing a product which is capable of understanding and directing the present and future world in which they live. Areas which have formerly been considered the prerogative of other social institutions, such as the religion, ethics, marriage, and prejudice, have been added

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to the responsibility of the school. Along with areas of social and cultural living can be appended a longer list of skills and abilities, a knowledge of which is considered imperative for the future economic life of our youth.

Our secondary schools, therefore, are committed to a program of training and educating the youth of today so that they may pilot the world they inherit. This being the charge given to education, their primary responsibility is to communicate ideas.

A few years ago, the word "communication" would have implied the use of oral and visual activities restricted to the human voice and the printed page. But today communication has been amplified to include a wide range of *media*. Motion pictures, photographs, slides, and other forms of pictorial communication have given us new tools with which to transmit information more effectively. The radio has condensed and distributed the events of the world today making such events everybody's business. The techniques and materials of mass communication are at our disposal. Their effectiveness cannot be disputed. It is our job as educators to evaluate the advantages and the limitations of all the various *media* of communication and adapt them to our own specific needs. There is no longer only one way of teaching in a school situation. What we are after today is the best and most efficient way of communicating ideas. If we are sincere in our endeavor to provide the best possible education to an ever-increasing number of our youth, the acceptance of the tools of the educational profession is a foregone conclusion. They become an integral part of the life and experiences of all persons who have a message or an idea to impart. Nor can they be separated from the experiences of the learner. Audio-visual materials become the energy and the puissance of communication itself. Too often a narrow and confining definition has been directed to these materials; a limiting factor in the successful understanding of the breadth of their function.

ADAPTATION

The place for audio-visual materials in the school program is one of *adaptation, experimentation, effective utilization, and evaluation*. The various *media* of communication have been conceived to perform certain functions and to meet certain needs. By *adaptation* is meant the evaluation of these *media* in terms of our needs as educators, moulding them and transforming them to fit our own specific objectives. It is realized that the radio with all of its advantages of mass communications has definite limitations for school use with reference to the scheduling and timing of programs. But, with the use of transcriptions and recorders, we can adapt the advantages of radio for our own educational ends.

EXPERIMENTATION

Experimentation with audio-visual materials broadly conceived has a rightful and legitimate place in the secondary schools. Especially when it is

concerned with the *improvement of instruction*. It is all too often that we are more concerned with teacher load, scheduling of classes, and other administrative problems than we are with improving the instruction in the classroom. Specifically, it has been found that with the adaptation of the foreign language records to class work the students' ability to speak the language has increased threefold. At this crucial stage in our nation's history the schools must take the situation in hand and experiment boldly in seeking the best, the most thorough, and the quickest way of imparting knowledge.

EFFECTIVE UTILIZATION

Effective utilization of the audio-visual materials available to us is imperative if we are going to secure the maximum benefits from the various *media*. There is no *one* way to use a motion picture. There are, however, guideposts which should be understood by teachers. The *media* is only the tool in the hands of the teacher, not the master. As familiarity with the *media* increases and by experimentation with it, utilization practices which prove effective in various situations will become recognizable. It is the function of the school administrators, therefore, to provide experiences for their teachers to become familiar with audio-visual materials and then make them accessible for experimentation and use.

CRITICAL EVALUATION

Critical evaluation is the only method by which teachers and administrators can successfully analyze their effectiveness. Too often evaluation has been centered around the materialistic phases of the school. Too little emphasis has been placed upon the heart of the situation—that being what we are teaching and how we are teaching it. If we would analyze critically each unit of instruction, attention would be called to many nonessentials which could be eliminated. A closer scrutinizing of subject-matter areas should indicate where audio-visual materials would assist in relaying the idea in a clearer, more concise, and more retentive way.

Evaluation does not stop after the selection of *media* purported to improve instruction. On the contrary the evaluation phase of the problem is just the beginning. When evaluation is keyed to the specific use of a particular *media*, the over-all purposes of instruction come into sharper focus. When a teacher is sincere in evaluating a particular method of instruction which she herself has willingly and voluntarily tried, the effects of such self-evaluation carries with it a reconsideration of her entire teaching pattern.

The place of audio-visual materials broadly conceived in the school program is one of communicating ideas through improved instruction.

Group V—Room 600

CHAIRMAN: *Ernest F. Weinrich*, Assistant Superintendent for Program, Department of Education, Schenectady, New York.

INTERROGATORS AND CONSULTANTS:

Francis W. Brown, Superintendent, Ottawa Hills School, Toledo, Ohio.

P. K. Houdek, Executive Secretary, Kansas City Social Hygiene Society, Kansas City, Missouri.

How Much Home and Family Life Education for Youth?

HELEN SLOCUM

PERHAPS one approach to the presentation of this topic is first to consider our purpose for including material on home and family life in the school curriculum. Educators are, I believe, agreed that youth must be prepared for living, that they must be given the opportunity to develop "attitudes, ideals, and habit patterns that will enable them to live wholesomely and effectively as individuals, as members of the family, and as citizens in the community."¹ Our social structure is built upon the home and family life.

There is general agreement that the responsibility for sex education and other information pertinent to the home and family should be assumed by the parents. However, if for one or another reason they do not assume this responsibility, nor does the church, the school then should make some provision for including the material in its curriculum.

Our immediate problem is: "How much home and family life education for youth?" Let us assume that the community is in accord with the teaching of such a unit. What do we hope to accomplish? What should be included? Not only what does youth *want to know*, but also what does youth *need to know*?

Before attempting to answer these questions, I should like to clarify my position. I teach physical education and direct health in a senior high school. The community is one of average economic and social status with no predominant racial or religious characteristics. The unit on family relations is an integral part of the direct health course which is required of all senior girls for graduation. The objectives and content are based upon my teaching experience with senior girls over a period of years.

USING FILMS

I have been asked to present the topic, "How Much Home and Family Life Education for Youth?" centering the material around these films which you have just seen and their use in the schools. Here we have one of the

¹ Biester, L., Griffiths, W., and Pearce, N., *Units in Personal Health and Human Relations*, University of Minnesota Press, Minneapolis, Minnesota, 1947, p. 1.

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biggest points of controversy in teaching the material on home and family life education. The use of films explaining human reproduction, regardless of their excellency, may evoke more criticism than any other teaching technique. Any justification of this criticism arises from the improper use of such films—mainly, the lack of preparation in both terminology and content of the material shown.

Many times visual aids are skillfully used to introduce a new unit. However, in teaching home and family life education a film on reproduction should *never* be used to introduce the material. The use of either of these films you have seen today is invaluable as a summary. The important point is that there must be adequate and careful preparation—a thorough understanding of the terminology and content—before such a film is shown.

William Griffiths of the University of Minnesota has stated that he feels that any time a film is shown as a substitute for actual class instruction, a great deal of harm may have been done, and the class has missed the vital part of the unit on reproduction.² The Minneapolis Board of Education has the McGraw-Hill film, *Human Reproduction*, and the Oregon film, *Human Growth*, in its library. They are released for showing, however, only to those people who have been recognized as meeting certain standards in teaching the material.

Another criticism, and in some cases one of the most serious errors in teaching a unit on home and family life, is that the teacher stresses the biological facts of reproduction and ignores the social and ethical implications. We have missed the most important point if our students do not realize that human reproduction is a beautiful and wonderful thing and that the gift of life is the most precious gift of all. If they do not understand the social and ethical implications, we have failed in our teaching. Believing then that youth must understand the functional anatomy and physiology of the human reproductive system in order that he may have a wholesome, positive attitude toward sex, the question is how do we present the material in our school?

As stated before, the unit on family relations is an integral part of the direct health course which is set up on a semester basis. In order to give both the students and teacher time to get to know each other before the material is discussed, the unit is presented toward the end of the semester. No special emphasis is placed upon it, it is just another unit in the health course. We usually begin with the study of physical changes and the related emotional problems of adolescence. Youth wants to understand himself and those about him. In order to accomplish this, he must understand the physical changes which take place in the body during adolescence. This necessitates a study of the endocrine glands and their functions. He must also understand the relationship of these physical changes and the emotional problems and conflicts

² *Sex Education Workshop*. Minnesota State Department of Education and the Minnesota Department of Public Health, August 22-27, 1949.

which arise. At this point we take up the study of the emotions such as fear, anger, hate, love, *etc.* so that the students understand why people act as they do.

The discussion of love and jealousy seems to lead naturally into dating. With the problem of dating confronting us, the most natural questions which arise are those concerning petting, going steady, the emotions and the moral standards involved. These subjects seem to provide a natural introduction to the story of human reproduction. *What* does youth *want* to know? *What* does youth *need* to know?

The material presented includes a scientific, objective explanation of the male and female sex organs and their functions in the process of reproduction. This means familiarizing the students with correct terminology. It must lead to an understanding of maturation, menstruation, the production of the ova and sperms, the fertilization of the egg, the growth of the embryo and fetus, the birth of the baby, how the sex of the child is determined, and an explanation of the occurrence of twins. These are biological facts which must be presented accurately and objectively to insure an understanding of the material and to eliminate fears and anxiety. These are the things which youth wants to know and which I believe youth should know.

The class is told in advance that there are three types of questions which I shall be unable to answer: (1) questions which I am unable to answer because of lack of information; (the answers to these will be looked up and discussed at the next class meeting) (2) questions of a medical nature which I am not qualified to answer; (3) questions which should be discussed in a premarriage conference with a physician, clergyman, or some other qualified consultant.

THE DISCUSSION PERIOD

The classes are free to ask *any* question at any time and take advantage of such opportunities. The point is made that the one fear the teacher has in presenting the material is that the students may leave with misinformation, and, therefore, no question is to be considered as too trivial to ask.

The amount of class time spent on these biological facts rarely exceeds three class periods. This part of the unit is concluded with the showing of a film on human reproduction. Using the film as a summary and following the showing with a question period usually clarifies the facts discussed.

My experience has been that the students are satisfied with the information and are ready to consider the social and ethical implications. Some time is spent upon the importance of having standards for society and of living up to these standards. Next, consideration is given to the need of exercising control and restraint over the sex impulse and the relationship between forms of petting and the sex urge. This is followed by a discussion on the importance of courtship, the choice of mate—including the importance of heredity, the

reason for and length of the engagement period and problems which should be discussed during this period, and the necessity for a realistic approach to and preparation for marriage.

We then discuss the responsibilities which must be assumed in marriage—to the partner, the self, and to the possible children. These problems include the need for common and individual interests, the need for trying to understand each other, adapting to the routine of married life, child rearing, family life education, etc. Because of the existing ratio of women to men in this country, we end the unit with a discussion of the problems of those who do not marry and some solutions which may be reached.

These very briefly are the things which I believe youth *wants* and *needs* to know. Throughout the entire unit stress is placed upon the importance of the correct use of the information given, and emphasis is placed upon the idea that the students, the future parents, should realize their responsibility in preparing their children-to-be for living through home and family life education.

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Some Aspects of Education for Marriage and Family Living

M. B. SAILSBURY

THE National Association of Secondary-School Principals is to be commended for making the topic of "Education for Home and Family Living" a part of their annual meeting. Evidence of the need for this emphasis in education is everywhere around us. Real marriage and family living is a complicated personal and social process, and, if successful, it is well integrated.

Mankind has difficulty understanding complicated social processes in terms of their integration and of necessity must examine and study their component parts one or a few at a time. This session on "Home and Family Living" of this annual meeting illustrates this. Meetings are now in session on various aspects of education. Ours happens to be the session on "Home and Family Living" and more specifically, because of the films, sex education. We are abstracting this one aspect for the purpose of study and examination. An analogous condition will exist in any school or group which carries on education in this area. There will be times in any such program of education when sexuality will of necessity be the only topic under discussion. It is this particular aspect of education for home and family living which is commonly objected to. Students, parents, and various social groups habitually fail to comprehend the nature of education for home and family living and tend to use the term sex education almost exclusively.

Such a practice almost insures that public steps will be taken to prevent such instruction from being offered in our schools. Newspapers consistently single out this one area and have caused some schools to drop very sound courses in marriage and family living. Therefore, it is wise for schools and any group carrying on education in this area never to list their offerings as sex education, but to use some substitute title. Titles such as "Human Reproduction," "Boy-Girl Relations," "Problems of Dating," "Problems of Courtship," etc. will do just as well and will meet public approval.

I have shown these two films, *Human Reproduction* and *Human Growth*, to many different groups; such as high-school, college, graduate methods and adult education classes, and parent, religious, (adult and youth), and YMCA groups. These films are specific teaching tools and must always be supplemented extensively. Prior to the appearance of these films I used chalk drawings and charts to provide similar information. From these varied experiences with all these groups over a period of several years, I have arrived at a number of hypotheses which serve as my guides in this area of education.

The difficulties of showing these films have little to do with the films themselves, but with the individuals who see them and with the community

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responses to the showing of them. There are some sound procedures to follow in securing their acceptance.

The same principles of teaching and learning apply to these films that apply to a film on conservation. It is the nature of the values, attitudes, and emotions associated with them which makes for the difference in their presentation and reception.

OVERCOMING DIFFICULTIES

It seems to me that human growth is better suited for younger groups up to the seventh and eighth grades and that human reproduction is excellently suited to the needs of all older groups. The more mature groups feel that human growth is childish. It seems obvious that human reproduction is much too technical for the younger groups. In practice I find that most young people in the seventh through the tenth grades and adult groups have considerable difficulty with the technical aspects of the film. No one should expect much understanding to come from the film unless careful and detailed study and discussion has gone on before showing the film. In fact the films should never be shown unless adequate study has preceded their use.

Youth are unbelievably *naïve* in the scientific "facts of life." This is well illustrated by a former student of mine who transferred from another school. One day, without much comment from her teachers, the boys and girls of the eighth grade were separately shown one of these films. The boys and girls then returned to their assembly room to begin classes. Said the girl, "The girls just stood around and stared in amazement at the boys, and the boys stared in amazement at us." This sort of thing should never occur with these films. It is the equivalent of expecting youth to make in thirty minutes an emotional adjustment that ordinarily requires two or three years in real living.

On the other hand, youth of the upper elementary school age are emotionally quite aware of sex. This is illustrated by a story told by Dr. George Crane. An elementary school lad asked his parents during the evening meal why bees buzz. The parents admitted that they did not know. Said the boy, "If some one stole your honey and nectar, you'd buzz too."

Do not use the bee and pollen approach on the youth of today. They have covered such background material long before the topic of sex education is taken up formally. They desire a frank, sound approach closely related to their own motives. Success depends largely on the degree to which the material covered matches the needs and true motives of the group. Significant transfer can be secured by referring to material dealt with in science, physical education, home economics, hygiene, and similar courses.

This may amaze you, but you will find it to be true as you teach in this area. There is little transfer of information from the detailed study of lower animal specimens in a typical biology class to the sexual structures and functions of human beings.

The reason seems obvious. Most teachers of biology do not feel free to incorporate material on human sexuality in their courses. Here then is a real opportunity. The study of this material can become a logical part of the biology course and be presented in the same objective manner in which the lower animals are studied. We cannot assume that students get such information by inference, but must intentionally incorporate it in specific courses. Biology is now generally intentionally taught in such a way as to prevent such inference or transfer.

All of you are aware of these and other problems which are encountered whenever sex education is proposed. These problems are to be expected and are at present in most cases a basic characteristic of our culture. They center around religious, community, and parent organizations, and groups, and oddly, school faculties in some instances.

Some groups in most communities and some entire communities in our country view the open discussion of human sexuality with such intense feelings of aversion that, at the present time, it cannot be dealt with formally in schools in such areas. Where this is the case, sex education cannot become a part of the school curriculum and accomplish the desired objectives. Educators must accept this.

Other communities either recognize the need or frequently can be brought to recognize the need in a number of ways. The important thing seems to be that the parents of the individual student in the proposed program understand what is to be offered and then give their approval. In my opinion, this should always be the case whenever any organization offers this material to any youth group.

If school staffs take most of the initiative for getting education for marriage and family living underway, they will frequently encounter difficulty or even fail in getting the program accepted. If students and parents are permitted to take much of the initiative and are used in the planning from the very beginning, difficulties will seldom be encountered. If resistance to the topic is great on the part of parents, it will be very unwise to attempt to continue with that particular group of young people. May I again point out that it is the topic of sex education to which parents and groups object and not the remainder of the material in education for marriage and family living.

In my case, requests for this material most usually come from youth themselves who want it presented to them in their class, "Y," or religious group. They are always referred by their teacher or sponsor and parents who must take initiative for some of the planning.

SECURING CO-OPERATION

For youth of high-school age and under, a number of conditions must then be complied with. *First*, a majority of parents must attend a meeting during which a rather detailed survey presentation of the material to be of-

ferred to their children is made and the film is shown. At this time it is clearly pointed out that sex education is but a necessary part of the whole topic of education for marriage and family living. During the question period which follows I have always found that the parents show great interest and ask very pointed and significant questions. Great tact and consideration must be used in answering all their questions as fully and reliably as possible. It is in this manner that respect for the individual or individuals handling the material is established. Sometimes they request that they be given an opportunity to have a class on the same material for themselves. In closing, the parents are asked to point out materials which should not be given or which should be added when it is offered to their children.

Parents have always made certain that human sexuality would be interpreted for their children in the light of religious, moral, cultural, and ethical values. These seem to me to be the primary sources of the standards for the judgments regarding human sexuality. As parents, I am sure that you feel the same way.

Second, parents must supply written approval for their child to attend the series of meetings. Occasionally there is a parent who will not supply this written approval. In all such cases (particularly in a school situation) the youth should be given opportunity to do something of a face-saving nature to avoid conspicuousness with his peer group. Needless to say the lack of approval should not be publicized.

Third, the school administration, or other authority for a group should specifically give approval also. This should be secured before preliminary planning is underway.

Fourth, the group must plan an adult visitors' schedule so that a parent, or some mature individual, sits in on every meeting for the entire series. Characteristically, youth do not want their own parents to visit, but request other adults. It has always been my practice to have a doctor, a psychologist, a minister, or a lay parent attend sessions which I handle and later to offer pointed criticism and suggestions regarding my knowledge and techniques of presentation. I can recommend this as probably the most desirable way in which to assist teachers in their preparation for instruction in this area.

Fifth, the organization carrying on the program cannot publicize the series except in their own publications. If an organization and the parents directly concerned give approval, that seems to be all which should be expected. By limiting publicity to those directly concerned, it is possible to keep education for marriage and family living a "family" affair. It is very reassuring for an organization or an individual to be able to refer in group meetings to several years of success in this area and not have to depend on publicity to achieve their sanction and approval.

Sixth, all individuals in the series of meetings must write a rather detailed evaluation of the techniques of presentation and of the material covered. This enables one to become aware of the needs, interest levels, and motives of given age groups and also to discover the things which they already know, find childish, too mature, or superfluous.

Seventh, except for conferences and similar meetings, the group must be limited to thirty or less. It is my opinion that the psychological limit of a group is reached at about eighteen and for a formal lecture-discussion group it is exceeded at thirty individuals. Since marriage and family living is concerned primarily with attitudes, it is mandatory, for desirable results, to secure the closest possible attention in the group.

These requirements do not apply to college and adult education groups except for group size and the written evaluation. Genuine interest and sincere purpose seem to be the primary requirements.

Students are given opportunity to ask either oral or written questions at any time. Both kinds of questions are dealt with directly and sincerely at the time they are submitted. The instructor should consider each question as a disguised personal one and then answer it with sincerity and limitations. By the end of a meeting or so, even youth groups make little use of written questions and ask almost all of them orally. One never has to wonder about groups asking questions in this area. By the end of the study, without exception, all groups are asking questions concerned with general aspects of good mental hygiene exclusively. I personally consider this as evidence that the subject has been adequately covered.

Should these films be shown to mixed groups? The answer depends on several things. If youth, or their parents, wish that it be shown to same-sexed groups this should be done. No problem is present in case the group is made up of the same sex. However, if the group by its very nature is mixed, to separate the group and show the film is to deal with sexuality as different and unusual. Preferably the films should be shown to the complete group and, if adequate preparation has been made, the film will be well accepted. I have never shown them to an intentionally segregated group.

TEACHER PREPARATION

Beginning instructors in this area are concerned about the questions with which they will be expected to deal. They may rest assured that as they continue teaching, fewer and fewer new questions will appear. I have received two new questions out of the past thirty-five groups. One dealt with circumcision and the other with the relationship between the appearance of the menopause and the one ovary remaining in a female after the other has been removed by operation. There is a highly similar category of questions for each age group in given communities.

Few teachers have any way at all for qualifying professionally in this area at the present time. I recommend that everyone in education for marriage become clearly aware of matters which are obviously medical, mentally pathological, or pointedly religious. Here, extended interpretation and recommendation is unsound because of the conscious lack of qualification, and is at all times decidedly unethical. Much contained in these three aspects is generally "out of bounds" in the study of marriage and family living. Inferences and interpretations should be general and limited in scope.

ASCERTAINING ACHIEVEMENTS

In an attempt to find out what results are accomplished in this area, I have tested groups at the beginning and at the end of the series of meetings. These tests were intended to measure attitudes and changes which might take place in them and factual information on anatomy and body function.

Results indicate that informal groups do not acquire a clear understanding of body structure and function and its terminology. Youth and lay groups know very little about these matters. One can almost assume that this is a completely new area to them. I have had many grandparents tell me, "Now for the first time, I have some idea what it is all about." If understanding of structure and function is desired, it is necessary to have a rather formal learning situation somewhat resembling a classroom for all groups.

My test results indicate that attitudes in this area can be changed tremendously. To further check attitude changes, I have interviews with members of the study groups. They also indicate that attitudes change greatly through group study. Because of this ease of attitude change, it is absolutely necessary, to my way of thinking, for the individuals working in the area of marriage and family living to make sure that their goals are religiously, morally, culturally, esthetically, and hygienically sound. These are the yardsticks for determining desirable and adequate attitudes and activities of human beings.

These tests and interviews are an attempt to answer a question uppermost in the thinking of parents. Does marriage and family living education, and more specifically, sex education, bring about a wholesome understanding and control of sexuality or does it bring about dissatisfied emotional curiosity and increased experimentation?

My results are based on about 300 tests and about 100 interviews. Some interviews take place as much as six months to a year after the study of the material. This is not a very extensive sampling, but to date I have yet to find a case which supports a belief that sexual "looseness" results. Cases are very numerous in which individuals have benefitted greatly. Difficulties of high-school and college youth are most usually related to dating. Inability to feel successful at social dating frequently brings sexual involvement to some degree. Therefore, this age group needs a sound interpretation of such things as the first kiss, necking, petting, and sexual emotion.

PRESENTATION

There is a best approach in education for marriage and family living for the various age levels of youth and adults. Needs, motives, and curiosities vary widely among the different age groups within a given community, and they also vary for the same age group in different communities. Because of the latter condition, it is impossible to have exact generalizations which apply to all youth of the same age in all communities of our country.

My experiences lead me to generalize that youth fall into quite similar groups at about two-year intervals. This can serve as a guide in sex education. The seventh and eighth, ninth and tenth, eleventh and twelfth grades, high-school graduates and college students, engaged, and the married individuals form six fairly homogeneous groups. The needs, motives, and curiosities of the members of each are similar enough to permit sound and meaningful instruction as a group.

An approach designed for the eleventh and twelfth grades will not meet the needs of the ninth and tenth on many accounts. Two illustrations will point this up. The first kiss is a common problem of the younger group and has been adjusted to by most of the older group. Marriage can serve as a real approach for the older group, but will not fit into the interests and motives of the younger. The less mature usually respond with laughter to reference to them in terms of marriage. The more mature persons respond well to an emphasis on courtship and marriage. The younger ones are vitally interested in their own personal curiosities and problems. Unsatisfactory acceptance will usually result if a group is "talked down to" or "talked up to" in terms of their social and emotional development.

The concept of socialization as it is now understood and dealt with in present-day psychology offers much towards an understanding of the maturation of social behavior in human beings. From the standpoint of formal education there are long term and immediate goals in this process. The long-term goal is that of assisting the individual to acquire information and understandings, and to achieve a degree of emotional maturity, which will enable that individual to contribute his part to, and participate in, a happy and rewarding marriage and family life. This cannot be completely achieved in one "super" course occupying a small portion of the total curriculum.

Immediate goals can be met by assisting youth with the aspects of their lives presenting real difficulty or puzzlement to *them*. This is a general goal of all of formal education. If each situation in the normal process of socialization is met without undue bewilderment and tension, one can expect an emotionally mature adult to result; otherwise, society will have on its hands a physically mature adult wearing emotional rompers.

There are needed aspects of education for marriage and family living which must appear throughout the curricular offerings of our schools. These

offerings must be closely geared to the real needs of youth and be in close agreement with their particular stage of socialization. Young people are not little adults with small amounts of adult problems; they are always young people with their own particular conflicts and bewilderments. Much of general education already contributes to the wholesome growth of youth.

The goal of the socialization of sexuality in our culture is sexual abstinence prior to marriage and then the limiting of its expression entirely to marriage relations. It is the wish of every parent that their children live according to this standard. Much concern about direct sexual expression in their children seldom appears in parents until dating begins. It is almost always present then. Parent groups are always greatly interested in the dating problem and make sure that it will be adequately covered with their children. They are specifically interested in securing an interpretation and explanation of necking and petting. This is especially true of the parents of girls.

From the standpoint of socialization, successful social dating is one of the very best means for achieving social maturity, poise, and a feeling of personal worth. Frequent dates is the most meaningful kind of proof to boys and girls that they are acceptable and desirable members of their peer group. Motivation producing direct sexual experiences by youth most usually stem from difficulties and tensions in some area of living far removed from sexuality itself. This fact seems well established in psychology. Actually, any experience which enables boys and girls to acquire poise and a permanent feeling of personal worth and accomplishment contributes to a sound control and maturation of sexuality. This thing of education for marriage and family living which we are discussing today cannot be completely curricularized.

ATTITUDE TOWARD THESE COURSES

Beginning instructors in this area of education need first of all, to think carefully through their own personal stand on all the aspects of human sexuality and other problems of marriage. Wide reading, conferences with marriage counselors, doctors, and religious leaders will assist greatly in bringing this about. They will find these individuals eager and willing in almost all cases to be of help in providing this much needed emphasis in education.

Sex education is the part of education for marriage which meets with parent and community disapproval. Child rearing, budgeting, recreation of the family, family administration, causes of conflict in marriage (except sexual) and other aspects are all acceptable topics for study in public education. When parents and interested groups clearly understand what is offered in the name of education for marriage and family living and are used extensively in the planning for the courses, they seldom offer active disapproval.

If a curricular offering on education for marriage cannot secure parental approval when it includes sex education, the remainder of the material should be taught. The benefits derived from it later in marriage will be very great.

The odds are very great that all boys and girls will some day be married and become parents. It is the one "occupation" which they are almost sure to enter. Everything possible should be done by our schools to enable them to have a happy and rewarding marriage and family life. Each grade level has much of real significance to offer in bringing about sound social and emotional development of youth. Whatever achieves this contributes to success in all areas of their living.

Group VI—Room 503

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How May Guidance Be Effective in the Junior High School?

HAZELLE S. MOORE

EDUCATORS in the past two decades have become increasingly aware that guidance is an inherent part of the secondary-school program. In the earliest years of the junior high school, guidance activities were chiefly centered on vocational selection. In the 1920's the accepted pattern became that of educational guidance, administering tests, grouping pupils, making and changing programs, and working with failing pupils. While both of these objectives are still valid, the major emphasis in today's junior high school is on understanding young adolescents in their social relationships. For the purposes of this discussion we use the term guidance in its broadest meaning, and include in it all of those specialized activities which aim at determining the various needs of individual boys and girls and ministering to those needs.

Recent research in the field of adolescence has pointed up at least four major areas in which the junior high school must serve youth's needs; (1) the area of personal living—health, self-confidence, understanding, and appreciation of the world together with a plan or life purpose; (2) the area of social adjustment—securing status with his peers and his family group and accepting the appropriate sex role; (3) the area of economic efficiency—securing knowledge of life-work possibilities and exploring certain broad fields; and (4) the area of civic responsibility—learning the importance of membership on a team, in a class, in youth organizations, and participation in student body gov-

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ernment and later in city, state and national government. A guidance program organized to achieve these four basic objectives will help adolescent boys and girls to satisfy their needs as maturing individuals.

THE ROLE OF THE ADMINISTRATOR

The role of the administrator in making the guidance program of the junior high school effective is a vital one. Developing a guidance philosophy; selection of the course of study; planning the master schedule, class size and teacher load; selecting and organizing personnel to administer guidance activities; planning the testing program; applying promotional policies; developing appropriate reports, forms, and cumulative records; providing adequate physical facilities for guidance personnel; conducting a continuous in-service training of the entire staff—these are but a few of the many ways the principal's continuous interest in and support of the guidance program may have a telling effect. Let us examine some of the ways in which the principal may undertake to discharge these responsibilities.

It is the principal who must stimulate his staff to appreciate the importance of guidance in the junior high school and to become thoroughly informed as to the physical, mental, social, and emotional characteristics of young adolescents. Through discussion and workshops, the faculty should co-operatively develop a brief statement of basic principles for the guidance program in the school, somewhat as follows:

1. Guidance activities are carried on by teachers, counselors, and administrators for the purpose of adjusting the school's program to the needs of individual pupils.
2. Guidance is intended for all pupils, not merely for those obviously maladjusted.
3. Guidance should aim to make the pupil increasingly able to make his own decisions wisely.
4. Guidance workers need special training.
5. Guidance involves the use of carefully collected data.
6. Guidance is a continuous process, not merely offered at critical points in a pupil's career.

The administrator must determine the type of counselor organization best for his school and choose the personnel to carry out the program. In Los Angeles half the junior high schools have a centralized plan, with one full-time counselor and one full-time attendance teacher. Nearly all schools have daily home rooms as an important medium for guidance activities and to give continuity of contact with the pupil, although there are a few schools which have no home rooms but encourage double-period English-social studies teachers to carry on guidance work. In contrast to the single counselor set-up is the decentralized plan with three years or more counselors in charge of small groups of pupils. Half of our schools operate on this plan, although here again, schools vary as to whether the counselors handle attendance or not. Since the school I represent is somewhat typical of the multiple counseling plan, I shall briefly describe its organization. There are three counselors,

each responsible for about 450 pupils, with whom they remain as the pupils progress from the B7 to the A9 semester. They are responsible for advising pupils on attendance as well as program problems, for administering tests, supervising the recording of data, and for interviews with patients. They work with the home-room teachers and the classroom teachers and confer frequently with administrators. Each counselor teaches one class per day. One of the three acts as co-ordinator of counseling activities, another as co-ordinator of attendance procedures. There are two full-time clerical assistants, and two attendance supervisors, and an adjustment co-ordinator assigned to a group of schools to assist with the field work on different cases.

Home rooms meet daily and the same teacher remains with the group for the entire three years. Some of the aspects of a good home-room program include the following: scheduling at the beginning of each day, preferably fifteen to twenty minutes in length; pupils segregated by sex, particularly if the intramural sports program is organized on a home-room basis, as small in size as possible, certainly smaller than the academic norm; homogeneous grouping by grade, and by ability; group to remain together for entire junior high period; theoretically, every teacher a home-room teacher. Suitable activities include administrative ones such as attendance, bulletins, office forms; individual guidance, *i.e.*, personal counseling for emotional problems, educational progress; and group guidance, *i.e.*, program making, drives and contests, social activities, intramural sports organization, clearing agency for school problems through student government representation, practice in parliamentary procedures, orientation to junior high school extending from B7 semester through senior high school in A9 semester. A number of the junior high schools in our city have vertical home rooms; that is, all grades are represented in each group. This plan excels in providing unity within a school since it eliminates that sense of status and superiority that often creeps into a group as it advances up the educational ladder.

In addition to the continuity of contact with counselor and home-room teacher, English and social studies classes are organized on a double-period basis, and the same teacher has the pupil throughout his first, and perhaps, most critical year in the school (*i.e.*, the seventh grade). In a good many cases seventh-grade arithmetic is taught by the same teacher who has the English-social studies. Thus, every possible effort is made to see that each pupil has an adviser who knows him and likes him and with whom he is in rapport.

HEALTH GUIDANCE

Health guidance is made effective by the work of the school doctor, the nurse, and the health co-ordinator. It is the duty of the health co-ordinator to see that a pupil's parents and teachers, including his counsel and home-room teacher, are made aware of pertinent health information and that steps are taken to correct all remediable defects. Health records are kept and be-

come a part of the pupil's cumulative record card. Classroom teachers can contribute greatly to the success of the health work in the school by being alert to and reporting symptoms of eye strain, hearing difficulties, fatigue, and the like by adjusting the classroom situation to known pupil needs and by consideration of pupils with cardiac or other physical weakness, particularly after an absence due to illness. Attention to good posture habits is an essential part of good classroom management. All junior high schools in our city have a health guidance program, the amount of time given by doctor, nurse, and co-ordinator varying from school to school according to the community and pupil needs.

As pupils enter junior high school, an orientation program is stressed in both home-room and English-social studies classes to acquaint them with the school plant and physical equipment, the courses offered, school regulations and traditions, and the many after-school activities which include hobby clubs, scouting and campfire groups, instruction in square and social dancing, informal co-educational games, playground activities, and the like. After-school competitive games between boys' home rooms are conducted. Big and Little Sister parties, home-room groups at the school barbecue, and similar activities afford avenues to immediate friendships with other pupils.

TECHNIQUES

We shall turn our attention briefly to some of the techniques for collecting and recording guidance data. For each pupil from one of the city's elementary schools, there are a cumulative record card and a health card containing a complete record of his progress to date and all tests which have been given, together with teacher comments as to personal and scholastic problems. The pupil fills out a questionnaire giving considerable practical information. During the first semester, he usually writes in his English class an autobiography after a period of preparation and development of his interest in doing so. During the second semester, a battery of achievement tests is administered, a group mental ability test, and, in individual cases, special ability and/or personality tests. Most of these are scored by machine at the superintendent's office, and charts and scattergrams are made up there indicating the deviates that should receive prompt individual attention. Test results are immediately recorded on the pupil's cumulative record card, and are given to all teachers concerned. In addition, teachers are urged to consult the cumulative record cards so as to have the benefit of anecdotal records of significant behavior, which are dropped into the folder from time to time by any interested teacher. It is frequently difficult to get concerted effort on the part of a faculty in compiling objective observation of behavior, but, where these are accumulated over a period of time, they prove invaluable in understanding a pupil. Finally, for the most serious cases of maladjustment, a case study is suggested. A home visit and interview with the parents to give the

social and family background and parents' observations is an essential part of the investigation, to which are added the pupil's educational record, all test data, his behavior difficulties, procedures already used by the school to help the pupil adjust, and his health record. A tentative diagnosis and plan for treatment are a part of the case study. At the case conference are present all of the staff most closely in touch with the pupil.

It is worthy of note that in a number of our schools a welfare or adjustment room has been set up, to which maladjusted pupils are programmed full time for a period of a few months. During this time all the resources of the staff are pooled in an attempt to identify the problem, discover its causes, and enlist the co-operation of the pupil and his parents in working toward a solution. Gradually period by period, the pupil is reassigned to the regular program of the school until, finally, his difficulties are under such control that he can again take his place in a "regular class." The work of the adjustment co-ordinator has proved significant in bringing about changes in the pupil's behavior pattern.

DESIRABLE PHYSICAL FACILITIES

One of the ways in which the administrator may be most helpful in influencing the guidance activities in a school is in planning for the physical arrangements. In Los Angeles we have under consideration in planning for new schools the following standards for an enrollment of 1,500 pupils, and progress is being made in improving facilities in the established schools:

- A. An effective guidance program necessitates facilities for private interviewing and individual psychological testing.
 1. Number of private offices required—4
 - (a) In multiple counseling organizations, one of these offices to be for head counselors and others for assistant counselors.
 - (b) In single counselor organizations, private offices are needed for teacher interviewing, for interviews by agency workers and attendance supervisors.
 2. Size of private offices
 - (a) Head counselor, 12' x 14'
 - (b) Assistant counselors, 9' x 11'
 3. Private offices completely enclosed—walls to the ceiling (otherwise interviews are not private)
- B. For the most effective guidance there must be teacher understanding of pupils. This necessitates a teacher workroom where cumulative records are accessible.
 1. Size, 12' x 24'
 2. Space for active cumulative files
 3. Space for work tables
 4. Adequate space to convert room for conferences of small groups
 5. Situated near clerical help
- C. An effective guidance program necessitates adequate clerical help to release counselor's time for actual counseling. This requires space for clerical assistants.

1. Convenient to record files, both active and inactive
 2. Direct telephone line to the desk
 3. Located near pupil waiting space
 4. Located near teacher workroom for supervision of records and for assistance to teachers.
- D. An effective guidance program involves the keeping of up-to-date records for all pupils.
1. It is necessary to have a room available for the giving of make-up tests in small groups.
 - (a) Size, 16' x 24'
 - (b) Desks (approximately 20 in number) and not tables, to meet approved methods of test administration.
 2. This room is not necessary if classrooms are not used six periods a day. If planned as part of guidance unit, it represents the "fatty tissue" necessary for increased enrollment, *i.e.*, space that can be converted into office use if more counseling time is assigned when enrollment reaches 2,000.
- E. For an effective guidance program there must be space for pupils to wait for appointment with counselors.
1. Space adequate for approximately six pupils to sit
 2. Space for guidance bulletin board
- F. The most effective guidance program would center all functions of the school into a guidance unit.
1. Health offices and attendance offices should be located in this guidance center with the guidance offices.
 2. Administrative offices should be close, but removed from the guidance center to avoid over-emphasis of authority.

As one will readily conclude from the above statement of policy and requirements, guidance activities are the very heart of our junior high schools. Two full-time supervisors are assigned on the staff of the assistant superintendent to help principals and counselors and to conduct a functional in-service training program. A beginning has been made in offering psychiatric service for help with the most difficult cases in the schools, and shortly this service will be enlarged with the opening of a clinical school for more extended observation and treatment of deviates.

ACCELERATION AND RETARDATION

The promotional policy in our city is based on the assumption that the average pupil should complete one full school grade for each year in school, but that those of superior learning ability may succeed in leaving senior high school in one-half to one year less time than the usual twelve years, and, finally, that slow learning pupils may require an additional year of experience. The educational program should be so adjusted to the interests and needs of pupils that only a limited amount of acceleration or retardation results for any given pupil. Enrichment is better than acceleration for superior pupils, therefore, we plan for only one-half year acceleration for such pupils in junior high school. The amount of retardation for all twelve school years should not exceed one year. In general, therefore, pupils do not enter our junior high schools younger than eleven years, six months and do not complete the work

younger than fourteen years, six months. The maximum age for entering junior high school is thirteen years, for leaving is sixteen years.

Considerable judgment and discretion are required of a principal in applying these age-grade status policies in individual cases. Periodic surveys must be made of the age-grade status in the school, and individual study given all cases considered for special promotion. Among the factors to be investigated are mental age and I.Q.; physical maturity, stature, and health; achievement grade placements; achievement in relation to capacity; and personal-social adjustment. Where a special promotion is given, it should be prior to the A9 semester, preferably in the eighth grade in a three-year junior high school, for all pupils entering senior high school are in need of the A9 experience.

Finally, the administrator must make the educational program of the school functional for individual pupils as well as for groups. You will observe that the assumption here is that the curriculum and methods of instruction must be flexible enough to be adjusted to pupil interests, abilities, and needs, not that the adjustment is to be done by the pupil to the established order. Whenever a pupil or group of pupils is given experiences differing from those of other members of a class, the curriculum is being individualized. All kinds of a guidance data must be available in order to make the necessary decisions in such cases. Among the methods which have been found successful in adopting the curriculum may be mentioned the following:

1. Providing optional units of work within a course
2. Permitting pupils to choose topics of interest to them within the general limits of the area under consideration
3. Using partial sets of books of varying levels of reading difficulty instead of one set for the entire class
4. Grouping according to interest and ability within the class
5. Encouraging pupils to take part in school activities according to their interests and needs.

EXPERIENCE OPPORTUNITIES

Throughout the junior high school, experience opportunities are given pupils to try themselves out in diverse situations with tools, materials, and subjects of various types. Many forms of creative work should be emphasized: art, crafts, music, writing, shops, homemaking. When a pupil undertakes a particular experience, he should be acquainted with the sequence of educational and vocational activities which are involved in this choice. Both school work and outside activities have guidance value at the junior high-school level. In fact, participation in extracurricular activities may be fully as significant as that in the classroom. The pupil must be helped to understand and accept the rapidly changing social conditions that he meets at each maturation level—changes in clothing, manners, daily program, relation to authority, assumption of self-responsibility. There should be accumulated a record of

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teacher observations of pupil behavior which have significance in relation to health, happiness, initiative, social adjustment, and the like.

SUMMARY

To recapitulate, in this brief paper an attempt has been made to indicate that administrative responsibilities in building an effective guidance program in the junior high school embrace many and varied activities, such as the following:

1. Setting up the guidance program and selecting the personnel to carry it out.
2. Planning a program of education which is suited to the particular needs, purposes, abilities, interests, and home background of the pupils for whom the guidance program is planned. A program which is not functional, flexible, and inherent in the lives of the pupils who seek guidance is incompatible with good guidance.
3. Delegating to a trained counselor or counselors the responsibility of directing the program.
4. Helping teachers to focus attention on the individual pupil through personal inventories of pupils and cumulative records, thereby helping them to individualize instruction.
5. Making frequent use of a research and measurement program.
6. Making available to teachers all pupil records and data pertaining to pupils.
7. Keeping teachers informed on current research in the field of adolescent needs.
8. Planning conferences with parents and teachers of the pupil with a particular problem, using the case study technique.
9. Endeavoring to establish a friendly relationship with parents, interpreting to them the program of education.
10. Encouraging group activities within the school, such as student government, student court, safety and traffic groups, sports activities, assemblies, service clubs, character building and hobby groups.
11. Making the best possible use of the school resources to build an adequate health program.
12. Providing means for the implementation of democracy.
13. Studying community resources and their influence on learning, making intelligent use of them.
14. Surveying the community liabilities in relation to youth.

How May Guidance Be Effective in the Junior High School?

ROBERT N. FOULK

AN effective junior high-school program of guidance must understand the needs of its young people, must assist the pupil to become adjusted to his present situation, and provide opportunities for every pupil to achieve the most complete and satisfying life possible, both in school and out. Broad over-all guidance, curriculum adjustments, teacher personnel, and school and community contacts are all a part of aiding the individual student. These

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contributing factors should be sharply pointed in the direction of his development. In all our work, human relations is the greatest factor—pupil personality meeting teacher personality, pupils mingling with other pupils, and teachers working with fellow teachers. Clashes of temperament are bound to occur. Searching for the cause or root of disturbance is a major part of adjusting to one another.

The first effective step must be in the selection of counselors who deep down in their hearts are vitally interested in boys and girls as individuals who are willing to listen with understanding, who can find out causes of conduct without violating or losing the confidence of the pupil. To be effective the counselors must build up a feeling of confidence and respect on the part of all members of the staff. In practice it so happens that the counselor frequently must "guide" or advise with other teachers.

The testing program is part of the work of the counselor. The results of the tests must be interpreted to the various class teachers, recommendations made for remedial work, or decisions reached as to whether there is need for the psycho-educational examiner. As a result of the latter's examination, there may be recommendations for remedial work for the pupil while remaining in the regular class group although others may be recommended for instruction in an individual progress group. Still others may need schedules planned for them entirely outside the traditional course of study. Inasmuch as most state laws require school attendance until sixteen, these latter cases can encroach upon the counselor's time, especially if the principal is not fully co-operative and willing to transgress the sanctity of subject matter. To illustrate by two actual cases:

1. A boy's hatred of his mother caused him to be truant and, finally, to run away from home into another state. When he was brought home, his problem was met frankly by arranging a half day of school and a half day of work. With the job he felt he was more independent of his mother. His half-day schedule at school included English, mathematics, and shop. These subjects proved practical to him. His adjustment lasted at least until he was able to stop school at the age of sixteen. Guidance would be made still more effective if time permitted follow-up studies of drop-outs.

2. Josephine's father and mother are separated. Josephine lives with her drunkard mother. Father is in Florida. The child has a pleasing personality, is nice looking, and appreciative of the counselor's interest in her. For one year and four months constant efforts were made to interest her in English, mathematics, etc. Temporary gains were made—then trouble at home, and things would be back where they started. After careful consideration and with her complete agreement, it was decided to have her work in the cafeteria in the morning and spend the afternoon with the home economics teacher. Under this set-up, she is an efficient and happy worker. She has every possibility to be sent out as an experienced cafeteria worker when she becomes sixteen.

The above are but two of the many cases which confront every school.

In the pamphlet "Growth Through Guidance" (1949 Wilmington Public Schools) Supt. Ward I. Miller says: "The aim of guidance and counseling

is to help the individual make the choices which are best for him. It avoids making decisions for him. 'Know thyself' is a motto of a good guidance program. It provides the means through which each student may come to know his capacities and limitations—physical and social, as well as intellectual. It offers advice when the student is in trouble, when he is perplexed, and when he needs a guiding hand. It strives to prevent frustration and failure by aiding him to find his niche and to develop into the finest person of which he is capable.

"The policies and procedures now in effect represent the best thinking of the staff up to the present time. Whenever, as experience may indicate, better ways of doing something are learned, it is expected that these regulations will be amended. Guidance services provided by the public school can be effective only with the co-operation and help of numerous other agencies, particularly the home and social, charitable and religious organizations. It is our desire that we may all work together for the good of each boy or girl."

THE PRINCIPAL'S PART

The principal of a school must assume the responsibility of and give full support to the guidance program.

- A. He should be responsible for providing a framework within which a guidance program can function.
- B. Parents and children should be offered privacy for interviews. Therefore, the principal is responsible for providing time and space for the counselor, and for other members of the school staff whose work includes interviewing responsibilities. It would be quite helpful if secretarial service were provided in order that the counselor's time may be conserved for her professional service.
- C. The principal should have a definite philosophy in regard to the services of the guidance program, and this should be clear to the staff. However, the principal must see to it that there is every opportunity for all to participate in the emergency of a common unified philosophy in regard to the guidance program.
- D. The principal carries the responsibility for co-ordinating the various aspects of the guidance service.

THE COUNSELOR'S PART

Guidance to be effective must enlist good community relations. The counselors might well be responsible for this.

- A. The counselor is in a key position both to be aware of and to make use of community services; such as, psychiatric services, social agencies, service clubs, professional associations, and PTA's.
- B. The counselor could interpret the guidance service to the school and to the community through:

1. Day-by-day service to the pupil
2. Contacts with parents
3. Use of school publications
 - a. Special pamphlets to parents interpreting counseling
 - b. Handbook
 - c. School paper
 - d. Local papers
4. Use of radio
5. Use of all special services provided; such as, psychologists, attendance officers, testing programs, physical education department, school nurse, school doctor, school dentist
6. Furtherance of parent discussion groups
7. Participation with other faculty members in community activities.

Another effective function of the guidance counselors is that of articulation.

A. Between elementary school and junior high school

Suggestions:

1. Junior high-school counselor visit with sixth-grade teachers in informal conferences concerning pupils.
 2. Junior high-school principal and counselors meet with sixth-grade pupils at tea for purpose of explaining the junior high-school program.
 3. Pupil representatives from the junior high school visit elementary schools and give talks to sixth-grade pupils on junior high-school activities.
 4. Have junior high-school orchestra, band, or glee club give assembly program in elementary schools.
 5. Invite sixth-grade pupils to May Day activities, Thanksgiving, Christmas program, *etc.*
 6. Arrange to receive entering seventh-grade pupils before the formal opening of school in order to receive home-room assignment, meet home-room teacher, see the building, *etc.*
 7. Place copies of the junior high-school handbook in sixth-grade home rooms.
 8. Prepare a brief pamphlet on "Junior High School Facts" to be circulated to sixth-grade pupils and their families.
 9. Inter-visitation of teachers of elementary and junior high school for better understanding of programs, standards of achievement, techniques of group work, *etc.*
 10. An early study of elementary records by junior high-school teacher.
- B. Between junior high school and senior high school

Suggestions:

1. Conference between senior high-school deans and junior high-school counselors.
2. Senior high-school representatives—student and faculty-participating in ninth-year class meetings and parent reception.
3. Arrange visits by interested ninth-grade pupils to the vocational or senior high school.
4. Junior high-school counselor available for conferences with tenth-year counselor during first week of school especially.
5. Circulation to parents of explanatory leaflets on tenth-grade work in vocational and senior high school.
6. Senior high school should give a brief report to junior high school on progress, including grades at least for first marking period—(Value—future guidance).
7. Senior high-school publication, if any, sent to ninth-year pupils during their last semester.
8. Senior high-school student government sends a delegation of former students back to visit and explain about the activities and organization of the senior high school.
9. Have the new tenth-grade pupils visit their new senior high school before formal opening.
10. Give each tenth-year pupil a handbook.
11. Review ninth-year testing program with tenth-year counselor.

TESTING PROGRAM

An effective guidance program requires an adequate, consistent, and continuous testing program. It is important that any tests given to pupils be planned carefully, that accurate records be made of these tests, and that competent people make use of these records. It is further important that the testing program decided upon be administered and scored by trained personnel and that teachers be given every possible help to evaluate the results, make individual profiles, and *to use the tests intelligently for diagnostic and remedial purposes.*

Testing can easily be overdone. Avoid testing for false publicity purposes. Test only to the extent to which the results *can and will be used* for individual pupil improvement or group improvement. A recommendation of a minimum testing program would be:

A. At the beginning of the eighth year

1. A group intelligence or mental maturity test, preferably one including a nonverbal score.
2. A diagnostic achievement test, providing information about reading, arithmetic, and language, with possible science or social studies.

The results of these tests should be studied by the class teachers and necessary remedial steps taken.

B. During the ninth grade

1. An interest inventory test, such as the *Kuder* or *California Occupational*
2. A clerical or stenographic aptitude test which would help pupils desiring to pursue commercial courses. (Optional)
3. A mechanical aptitude test which would help pupils desiring mechanical or trade courses
4. For boys only, particularly those who are interested in a vocational school, the *Bennett Mechanical Comprehension Test*.

It is well to have a few of a variety of tests for individual cases that may arise. The *California Personality Test* in proving quite interesting helpful in some adjustment cases.

HOME ROOM

In many junior high schools the home room is the hub around which the school revolves, and the teacher is held responsible for guidance. In such schools, home-room teachers need to be familiar with guidance techniques and possess many of the qualities needed by a trained counselor. To be effective, however, there must be some one person to co-ordinate the work of the home-room teachers.

Thus far, no mention has been made of group guidance. Experience has proved that with trained personnel it has value. One program that has worked effectively is to assign one period per week in all three junior high-school grades. Somewhere in junior high school the topics listed below should be covered; the exact placement would depend on the pupil population, community, etc.

- A. Social Living
 1. Human relationships—orientation
 2. Social behavior
 3. Health
 4. Leisure
 5. Personality—character traits
 6. Home and family living
 7. Civic responsibility
- B. Education
 1. Pupil self-analysis
 2. How to study
 3. Understanding curriculum
 4. Articulation between grades and schools
- C. Testing
 1. Questionnaires, etc.
- D. Vocational
 1. People at work
 2. Planning for a vocation

RECORDS

The value of keeping adequate records in counseling and advising with students cannot be computed. A cumulative record, carefully compiled over the years and picturing many aspects of a student's growth and development, is one of the best means of getting pertinent information for both the counselor and the counselee. This account should not start with the pupil's life on entering the secondary school, but should contain related information about what has transpired before his admittance to junior high school. It is an outstanding aid in studying this individual's abilities, interests, and needs and giving him the proper guidance to adjust to school life and to shape his future plans. The cumulative record cards should contain scholastic record, health record, test records, anecdotal, record of parent interviews, and record of special services. It is easily recognized that this requires time.

For a school of seven hundred or more there should be at least three trained counselors with no class teaching other than group guidance. The counselor who starts with the seventh year should follow the group through the three years. Ideally there should be a fourth. This fourth person should act as chairman and should be the one who has just completed counseling. Thus the chairman would rotate each year and so be spared the double burden of articulation of junior high school with senior high school and elementary school with junior high school.

Group VII—Room 502

CHAIRMAN: *Lena M. Wolfe*, Principal, Claude A. Swanson Junior High School, Arlington, Virginia

INTERROGATORS AND CONSULTANTS:

A. M. Gruenler, Principal, Skinner Junior High School, Denver, Colorado.

Delmar H. Battrick, Principal, Callanan Junior High School, Des Moines, Iowa.

What About Common Learnings in the Junior High School?

FRED W. AXE

COMMON learnings in the junior high school might be discussed in terms of fundamental processes, or the three R's. There certainly have been hours of discussion and reams of writings discussing the three R's in a controversial manner. However, it seems to me that there is fundamentally much more general agreement about the three R's than is commonly recog-

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nized. Everyone realizes that all should have command of the fundamental processes. Disagreements are really in terms of how and when these learnings should be acquired. Consequently, if we desire to discuss common learnings in the junior high school in terms of the three R's, we should consider the two issues: When are the various fundamental processes to be acquired, and how are these learnings to be achieved?

Common learnings in the junior high school might be discussed in terms of general education, which is the three R's modernized into broad subject fields. Instead of referring to reading, writing, and arithmetic, we would give attention to literature, science, mathematics, art, music, *etc.* Again, fundamentally, we all agree that general education should be made available to all. Our disagreements would be with reference to the extent of the learnings, the method of their acquisition, and the order of presentation.

Common learnings in the junior high school might be considered with particular emphasis upon the exploratory aspect of the junior high school. Exploration is certainly just as truly learning as is drill for mastery, even though it is a different type of learning. Again we would find fundamental agreement as to the importance and value of exploratory learnings for all junior high-school pupils. However, I believe we would all agree that fields of exploration, as at present organized in many junior high schools, are somewhat artificial. For example, exploration in the field of printing is being broadened in many schools into the field of graphic arts, which includes book binding, silk-screen work, photography, and the like. Also, in many schools exploration in the field of drafting is being broadened to include a more functional combination of drafting with handicraft or general shop. These are just two illustrations of the realization of the artificiality of the present organization of exploration fields. Disagreements would not be on the basis of whether there should or should not be exploratory learnings in the junior high school, but rather as to how many and which field should be explored, what learnings should be included in the several fields, and which learnings should be common to all pupils, which common to girls only, and which to boys only.

Not so many years ago the superintendent of the Los Angeles City Schools had an investigation made into the causes of failure on the job on the part of those pupils who left or were graduated from secondary schools to go directly into industry or business. He found that the major complaint of employers was not that the pupils lacked ability to read or to compute accurately, or to write legibly; but that somehow the common learnings in our secondary schools had not included sufficient learning of how to get along with one's co-workers and with one's superiors.

We must admit that too frequently we school people think of learning in terms of subject matter, whether that subject matter be the three R's, the

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broader fields of general education, or some other organization or modification of school subjects. However, learning is growth—or more accurately, learning is the process of growing. Mastering of any subject matter is of relatively little importance if our junior high-school youngsters are not continually growing in their ability to get along well with other people, growing in their understanding and practice of healthful and safe habits of living, growing in their respect for public and private property, growing in their ability to see the beauty inherent in the universe, growing in their ability to understand and evaluate facts, ideas, rumors, superstitions, opinions, and propaganda.

These and similar growthings are the common learnings to which we should give our primary attention in the junior high school. All junior-high youth need these learnings.

This brings us to another alternative. Common learnings in the junior high school might be considered on the basis of the needs of the pupils in junior high school. To this end a group of junior high school administrators a couple of summers ago took the ten imperative needs of youth as published in the March, 1947, *BULLETIN* of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals and changed, adapted, and amplified those ten statements so that they would apply to the young people of junior high-school age. My thesis is that common learnings in the junior high school should be considered in terms of these.

TEN IMPERATIVE NEEDS OF YOUTH AS INTERPRETED
FOR JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS

Imperative Need Number 1

All junior high-school youth need to explore their own aptitudes and to have experiences basic to occupational proficiency.

- A. They need to explore various occupational fields and from the exploration to choose fields to pursue further.
- B. They need to analyze their own personal interests and abilities.
- C. They need experiences which will give insight into the world at work.
- D. They need work experiences at home or elsewhere.
- E. They need to have information regarding the activities and requirements of various vocational fields.
- F. They need to learn about and practice safety in connection with occupations.
- G. They need to grow in their ability to be accurate, and to experience satisfaction in the completion of a job well done.
- H. They need to learn to work effectively with others and to gain satisfaction from contributing to the welfare of the group.
- I. They need to acquire certain skills which are basic to occupational success.

Imperative Need Number II

All junior high-school youth need to develop and maintain abundant physical and mental health.

- A. They need to comprehend the significance of health.
- B. They need to covet health of body and mind.
- C. They need to practice the various habits which result in a life-long pattern of sound health.
- D. They need to grow in acquiring physical co-ordinations.
- E. They need co-operative and competitive play.
- F. They need to succeed frequently and to have notice taken of their progress.
- G. They need to achieve emotional stability sufficient to weather the pressures of their environment.
- H. They need guidance in understanding and resolving their personal problems.
- I. They need to understand the relationship between physical and mental health, with particular reference to changes taking place during adolescence.

Imperative Need Number III

All junior high-school youth need to be participating citizens of their school and community, with increasing orientation to adult citizenships.

- A. They need to feel that they are *bona fide* members of the body-politic of the school.
- B. They need to feel that they are partners with the faculty in the management of the school and the promotion of its welfare.
- C. They need to feel that competence and personal worth grant status regardless of race, creed, or socio-economic backgrounds.
- D. They need to feel that their role as citizens and their conduct are intimately related.
- E. They need to feel that school citizenship provides privileges and opportunities, grants certain rights, and entails definite responsibilities, including a willingness to serve.
- F. They need to realize that their school community is organized along lines comparable to the civic organizations of the adult community.
- G. They need to experience fully the function of representation in government and in other group activities.
- H. They need to understand and appreciate the processes and struggles by which our nation developed and continues to develop.
- I. They need to understand and value the distinctive features of democratic society and to cherish the contributions of America to democracy at home and abroad.
- J. They need to discover ways in which they can apply their school govern-

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mental experiences (in classes, extracurricular activities, and student body organizations) to their out-of-school clubs, Sunday Schools, gangs, and other formal or semiformal groups.

- A. They need to look forward to playing a vital role in their senior high schools and later in adult citizenship.
- I. They need a growing awareness of contemporary problems, and need to value and respect honest differences of opinion.

Imperative Need Number IV

All junior high-school youth need experiences and understandings, appropriate to their age and development, which are the foundation of successful home and family life.

- A. They need to grow in appreciation, respect, loyalty, and a sense of responsibility toward their own homes.
- B. They need help in interpreting and resolving problems which they may experience in their own homes.
- C. They need to enrich home life through wholesome leisure-time activities.
- D. They need to understand the art of making the home attractive and to learn skills which can be used in the home.
- E. They need to associate with members of the opposite sex in a variety of wholesome activities.
- F. They need to understand the spirit and the practices of etiquette.
- G. They need to know and to practice the principles of living which make it possible for an individual to be the kind of person who can live with himself and with whom others can live.
- H. They need scientific knowledge and wholesome attitudes regarding the physical changes of adolescence.
- I. They need to understand the importance of the family in the life of the individual and of the community.
- J. They need a growing awareness of the effect of the community on family living.
- K. They need to appreciate the freedom which is guaranteed the home in our American way of life.

Imperative Need Number V

All junior high-school youth need to develop a sense of the values of material things and of the rights of ownership.

- A. They need to look forward with anticipation to life on the highest standard they are capable of achieving.
- B. They need to learn fundamental processes and skills which enable one to participate effectively in our economic system.
- C. They need experience in appraising relative worth of material things.
- D. They need to be aware of readily available resources which aid and protect the consumer.

E. They need personal financial experience involving a balance between wants and resources.

F. They need to practice respect for public and private property.

Imperative Need Number VI

All junior high-school youth need to learn about the natural and physical environment and its effect on life and to have opportunities for using the scientific approach in the solution of problems.

A. They need to gather facts and to think clearly about their meaning and their relationships.

B. They need to differentiate between facts and opinions, between truth and fiction.

C. They need to develop a wholesome curiosity about the nature of the earth and living things.

D. They need to understand the importance of natural resources and their conservation.

E. They need to grow in their understanding of biological structures and the functional processes of growth.

F. They need to practice healthful and safe habits of living.

G. They need to adjust their ways of living to the world of applied science and invention.

H. They need to understand that co-operative living is imperative in a scientific world.

Imperative Need Number VII

All junior high-school youth need the enriched living which comes from appreciation of and expression in the arts and from experiencing the beauty and wonder of the world around them.

A. They need opportunities for expression in the various arts and encouragement to take advantage of such opportunities.

B. They need to discover and to develop special talents and abilities.

C. They need opportunities for experiencing and appreciating aesthetic values.

D. They need knowledge which contributes to appreciation of and expression in the arts.

E. They need to learn how to use the principles of beauty in daily living.

F. They need to include expression in some of the arts as part of their leisure-time activities.

G. They need to learn to see the beauty inherent in the universe.

H. They need a growing awareness of the importance of the arts in community living.

I. They need to feel a sense of responsibility for developing and maintaining beauty in the community.

Imperative Need Number VIII

All junior high-school youth need to have a variety of socially acceptable and personally satisfying leisure-time experiences which contribute either to their personal growth or to their development in wholesome group relationships, or to both.

- A. They need opportunities to engage in wholesome leisure-time activities with the opposite sex and to learn to react to the other sex without shyness, rowdiness, or embarrassment.
- B. They need to explore a wide range of leisure-time pursuits and their own potential interests in and aptitudes for those pursuits.
- C. They need to develop skills and other forms of ability in leisure-time activities to a degree which promotes enjoyment and profit.
- D. They need to give increasing attention to planning their use of leisure-time.
- E. They need to develop respect for the ideal of safety and to learn and practice methods of promoting safety in leisure-time pursuits.
- F. They need opportunities for unorganized leisure in which they may engage in "chit chat" and other informal activities.
- G. They need to grow in discriminatory use of leisure-time facilities.

Imperative Need Number IX

All junior high-school youth need experiences in group living which contribute to personality and character development; they need to develop respect for other persons and their rights and to grow in ethical insights.

- A. They need to feel themselves acceptable to their peers and to have a sense of belonging and security in their environment.
- B. They need to become increasingly emancipated from adult control; and, at the same time, each needs to retain the affection and support of one or more adults.
- C. They need to grow in their ability to live harmoniously with others, to plan and work co-operatively toward achieving group decisions.
- D. They need to develop skills and attitudes conducive to co-operative efforts for the common good.
- E. They need ample opportunities for exercise of wholesome loyalties and responsibilities.
- F. They need experiences which give them status with their fellows.
- G. They need worthy outlets for their idealism and hero worship.
- H. They need group experiences of rich emotional import.
- I. They need to develop a system of values to which they refer when making choices and decisions, particularly in matters of conduct; they need to gain assurance in distinguishing between right and wrong.

Imperative Need Number X

All junior high-school youth need to grow in their ability to observe, listen, read, think, speak, and write with purpose and appreciation.

- A. They need a growing concept of the purpose and value of language.
- B. They need to understand and evaluate facts, ideas, rumors, superstitions, opinions, and propaganda.
- C. They need to read with understanding, for information, and for personal satisfaction.
- D. They need to determine issues and problems that are meaningful to them personally and for growth in understanding local, national, and world problems.
- E. They need to realize the importance of checking their conclusions for reasonableness.
- F. They need to learn the skills of speech and writing that are needed for expression of their thoughts.

No importance should be attached to the order of presentation of these ten imperative needs. Furthermore, it is recognized that the statements are somewhat general, necessitated by the tremendous differences which exist between the pre-pubescent and the late-adolescent development found among junior high-school youth.

To recognize that common learnings in the junior high school should be based upon the needs of all junior high-school youth is, in my opinion, important. But more important and more difficult is the doing something effective about it. Time will not permit our going into this aspect of the problem today, except to say in conclusion that common learnings in the junior high school will not be achieved by administrative *dicta*. Effective results can be brought about only if large numbers of teachers as well as administrators and supervisors work on this problem.

What About Common Learnings in the Junior High School?

C. F. McCORMICK

THE assignment, "What About Common Learnings in the Junior High School," to this discussion group is an elastic one. Almost anything one would say about the junior high school would be somewhat relevant to the subject. Even with such elasticity, the decision as to what to emphasize in this paper about the common learnings program in the junior high school was not an easy one. You represent a multitude of situations quite heterogeneous in nature—some are from large schools with curriculums so well developed that they represent a stage well in advance of the content of this paper; others

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if you are from schools in communities where the level of aspiration is not too high and where resistance to change is a stubborn reality. At any rate I want to assure you that I sincerely hope that my part on this program will not represent a total loss to you. I have decided to report to you on a study which we conducted over a period of two years at Jarrett. It was an effort at co-operative action research. The study was made as a co-operating school in the Horace Mann-Lincoln Institute of School Experimentation of Teachers' College. Obviously in twenty minutes it will not be possible to go into much detail about the study. I shall only attempt to highlight it by stating the problem, the methods used in studying it, the major findings of the study, and the values which accrued from it.

ASCERTAINING THE DATA

For more than a decade the Jarrett faculty has been carrying on experimentation with curriculum design. Practically all of this experimentation has been related to and an attempt to improve the program of general education, or common learnings, of the school. This program has been called by various titles over that period of time—combined classes, integrating curriculum, core curriculum, and general education. However, we were trying to develop a program of education for youth of junior high-school age which would fit the specifications of this definition of general education:

General education is that education which enables every one to be an effective individual and a positive, functioning citizen of the society in which he finds himself. It consists of those learning experiences which everyone needs to have regardless of what occupation he follows or where he happens to live. In our country, it should develop in the individual those understandings, skills, attitudes, appreciations, and habits of effectively meeting the recurring situations of daily life which are essential in a democratic society.

When it came time for our faculty to choose a problem for study as a member of the Institute it seemed logical that we would select one which would deepen our insights into an educational program which would more adequately meet the needs of boys and girls. While the selection of an area in which we would work was not a difficult decision, the exact statement of the problem was. But the committee and faculty meetings called for that purpose were challenging and lively. This is the problem we finally chose:

From an analysis of problems of living as they appear in the lives of students, what guides can we set as we revise the total educational experiences of our junior high-school boys and girls in order to help them become effective participating members of a democratic society?

In order to pursue this problem intelligently it was necessary to collect data—much data from which to sift the problems which would constitute the basis for the common learnings curriculum of our school. The determination of how to collect the data, what instruments to use, what procedures to follow, was the next step. We decided on four instruments and procedures: anecdotes from teachers, questionnaires to students, discussions with parents, and exploration of the literature in the field.

Teachers agreed to submit anecdotes which would reveal problems which junior high-school students face and the situations in which they face them. This technique proved very fruitful. Many problems were discovered. Equally as rewarding was the result that many teachers discovered for the first time in a meaningful way that students have problems. More about that later.

I want to read a few of the anecdotes in order that you might get a better idea of their nature and content and how they served our purpose. Several hundred of these anecdotes were submitted. Scores of anecdotes indicated that students were wrestling with situations that involved the establishment of personal values or standards of ethical behavior. These anecdotes are typical in this group.

The incident occurred during an intramural touch football game. The coach who was officiating submitted this anecdote:

Taking advantage of the fact I was watching the flight of the football during a particular play, John proceeded to trip an opponent in order to get closer to the ball. When the opponent was tripped he said, "John, that's a foul." John replied, "It isn't if the coach doesn't see it." When questioned about the occurrence, John readily admitted the foul, saying, "I knew you couldn't watch both ball and me at the same time, so I did it."

The second situation reported is likely a common one in many schools.

Two boys were copying algebra homework from a third boy. One looked over at me and grinned saying, "This is real co-operation." I asked them if they regarded such swapping as cheating or not. They said, "No, it's just co-operation. Whoever has the time, does it."

The third anecdote reports a situation in which students were discussing the place of the teacher in school.

HELEN: I think the teacher should spend most of her time helping the slow ones. The bright ones get along all right anyway.

JANE: Could she spread it out—help everybody some?

Many other anecdotes clustered around the problem of boy-girl relationships. They were revealed in a multitude of ways. Here are three which indicate the general nature and concern of the early adolescent age about heterosexual relationships.

A group of eighth-grade girls, while waiting for the last lunch bell, were discussing a forthcoming Christmas party (not a school party). The question was whether or not to invite boys. One girl said, "I think we could have so much more fun if there were just girls." Another not-so-attractive girl said, "What! Mistletoe and things and no boys!" When asked where the party was to be, one said, "At one of our houses, we don't know which one yet."

The conversation which follows was overheard between Janis and Sue as they talked on the playground.

"Janis, I wish I could go on the hayride, but mother and dad wouldn't permit me to go with all those older kids along and no one else to chaperon."

"You should be like me, Sue, I can go when I wish. Mother is in Chicago, and the woman she has me stay with doesn't know where I go as long as I don't come home too late."

"That sounds swell, but I never could do that—"

The third anecdote in this series shows the frankness with which youngsters many times look at this problem.

I have noticed this year that, when my home room goes to the auditorium for assembly, the girls are slow about starting. We have asked the girls to go first and then the boys. When the girls were asked what they could suggest as a remedy, Sally said, "Let the boys go first. The reason the girls hang back is to be in the last row of girls so as to be in front of the boys."

An exceedingly large number of incidents reported dealt with home problems—*adjustments to parents and siblings*. Joe unburdened himself about conflicts with his sister as follows:

"Sure, I hate her. I really mean I do. She picks on me and I just hate her," he said.

"Are you sure you mean to use that strong a word?"

"Yes, but I don't like her. I can't ever do anything to suit her."

On a morning a few days later, the boy appeared and planting himself determinedly in front of his teacher said, "And you want to know why I hate my sister? She bloodied my nose this morning. 'See,' he said pointing to the blood on his shoe, 'There's where the blood dropped on my shoe.'" When asked what brought it on, he replied, "All because I opened a window a little."

The problem of age classification is clearly shown in this anecdote which is a direct quote from an eighth-grade pupil:

Here at school we decide that it is good to talk over news and things like that with our parents. The other night we had some friends in and, when I started to talk about the U. N., (and I knew about it too) my father said: "You're not supposed to take over the conversation of grown people. You're supposed to keep quiet." I never will learn how if they don't let me try.

Here is another similar problem given in another direct quote:

When my parents have guests and there are little children, I have to take care of them while the grownups talk or play cards. I get awful tired of this! I've never refused to do it because they always ask me in front of the guests.

The problem areas represented by these anecdotes were classified as:

Developing personal values

Boy-girl relationships

Establishing family relationships

These are a very few of the types of problems we uncovered.

There were numerous difficulties encountered in this phase of the study. *First*, it was necessary to develop skill in the identification of significant life situations; *second*, the interpretation of them demanded extensive discussion; and, *third*, their classification into usable categories required more discussion and agreement. All of these problems were attacked group-wise which necessitated more time but made the project more meaningful to all concerned.

The questionnaire given to the students was quite short. The four questions were simple but the greatest value of the instrument was in its simplicity. The four questions asked were:

1. What do you like about Jarrett?
2. What would you change about Jarrett?

3. In an ordinary week of the year, what do you do that gives you a great deal of satisfaction?

4. What would you change in your life (outside of school) if you could?

This questionnaire yielded a vast amount of data. The answers were frank, apparently honest, and sincere. Of course, the questionnaires were anonymous. By indirection the 800 students had revealed scores of persistent problems. They had also given many clues to follow in improving the school. A few of the responses to the second question "What would you change about Jarrett?" were a bit revolutionary. Some antisocial beings in the group used the opportunity afforded by anonymity to wish for devastating things for some teachers. The contributions we received in response to the third question were most encouraging. The kinds of experiences which gave satisfaction were most heartening. Anyone who despaired of the youth of the day should read these statements in their entirety and give his morale a lift. But the fourth question which related desired changes in their lives yielded the greatest results for our purpose. Numerous problems—literally scores—were recorded as responses to this question. Quotations from five students will suffice to show a few kinds of problems they were confronting.

One would be that I try to accomplish more with my hands, such as mechanical work. And I would try to learn more about citizenship.

I would like to have lots of money so I could buy all the sports equipment that I wanted and buy a new house and car for my mother. And I wish I had enough money to buy a new baseball diamond like White-city for Springfield.

I would make a change so that I would not have so many things to do; so I could do more of what I really want to do. I would wish that my sister and I could get along better and would not always be fussing.

I would like very much to teach my younger brother his school lessons so he could catch up with other boys and girls his age. Above all, I wish I could get rid of my temper. I stay rather calm at school, but at home I fly off the handle if I get the least bit upset. Another thing I want is to learn to dance so I wouldn't feel left out of so many things. Perhaps I would move some girls into my neighborhood so I would have some one to be with once in a while.

I would first get a nice dog, preferably a collie, but my mother hates animals. Next I would have a few parties in our recreation room or outside on the terrace where we have a grill, but my mother won't allow it. Next, I would wear different clothes to school. My mother makes me dress very neat. I don't even have a pair of bluejeans. I would like to be a little taller and weigh more than I do.

The teachers had made their contributions to our accumulation of data by recording anecdotes; students had filled in questionnaires, but we had not utilized the parents as a resource for gathering more data. We decided to hold meetings with parents in the areas of the six elementary schools in the Jarrett district to discuss our study with them and to enlist their help. The

invitations stated the purpose of the meeting and gave a concise statement of the study under way. Parents attended the meetings in good numbers. Their participation was enthusiastic after a proper setting of the stage. Teacher recorders in each group took down running accounts of the discussions. From these running accounts we were able to analyze many problems of pupils as parents saw their children facing them.

In order to give you a feel of the extent to which we had gone to pursue our study at the grass roots, I want to quote a statement or two made by parents in these meetings. As you might suspect there was considerable variety in the kinds of problems parents presented in this kind of meeting. Many centered on selection of a vocation—for example.

I'd hate to see my son on a farm as lazy as he is, but that's what he wants to do even though we try to discourage him.

The question of membership in various youth organizations, especially social sororities and fraternities came in for much discussion. One parent made this statement:

This matter of sororities and fraternities seems very vital to children of this age. My daughter and I became very upset about it. They think, if they can't be in a sorority, they are completely out of everything.

In these meetings the problems of allowances, leisure time, use of the radio, and conflicts that arise over differences of age came up for considerable airing.

The exploration of the literature on the subject of needs, interests, and concerns of youth was postponed until we had completed our own research on the problems. We used the findings of other studies to act as a check on the types of problems which we had classified. Particularly helpful was the chapter by Stephen Corey in *American High School* on "Developmental Tasks of Youth." The research at the Ohio State University on the problems of adolescence was likewise rewarding. A third resource was the comprehensive coverage of this subject in the book by Dr. Stratemeyer and Dr. Forkner, *Developing a Curriculum for Modern Living*. Of course we made extensive use of the studies made by the National Association of Secondary-School Principals on the imperative needs of youth. Our findings confirmed those of the larger studies referred to here.

FINDINGS

I have already indicated some of the findings from the study; namely, personal values, boy-girl relationships, and family relationships. I have time only to summarize a few more here. Other significant persistent problems discovered could be classified under the following categories:

- Problems of group relationships

- Maintaining physical and mental health

- Democratic processes in changing rules, regulations, etc. (using processes of government)

- Using leisure time

- Making friends

Choosing leaders

Acquiring skills in communication and number

Meeting financial problems

Each of these major problems had numerous sub-problems listed under it.

Another major finding of the study was the compelling desire of students, to put it in their own words, "to be in things." Since we do believe that responsible participation is one of the surest ways to growth, we have assiduously sought to find more ways in which they could participate in activities that had vital significance for them.

As I have explained in the introduction to this paper, our curriculum had been based on the problems approach for a period of about ten years. The findings of our study appreciably influenced our curriculum in several ways. *First*, the nature of some of the problems taken up was changed to deal more directly with the specific personal and social problems which we had found our youth to be facing. *Second*, we were much more sensitive to the need for handling the social, economic, and other problems in such a way that individual students could identify themselves in terms of the larger problem and, thus, gain insight into their own problem through the social processes. *Third*, we have diligently searched for materials on the junior high-school level which deal with the kinds of problems with which our students are confronted. *Fourth*, we discovered that many persistent life situations can only be dealt with on the basis of individual counselling and guidance. Our deepened insight and sensitivity to the developmental tasks of youth have, we think, materially improved our guidance.

TEACHERS EVALUATE THE STUDY

Evaluation of the research study was necessarily continuous. Next steps could not be planned and action decided upon without a thorough consideration and evaluation of the effectiveness of the preceding stages or steps. At one juncture, however, near the end of the second school year of the study more formal attention was given to evaluation. The values accruing to teachers, students, and parents were legion according to their own estimates. I will emphasize the value to teachers from the study.

Teachers' statements of the values to them of the study have been classified into three major headings. *First—Discussions in Conference Groups and in Faculty Meetings have built up a common background of experience and greater facility in communication.*

One teacher writes:

In group meetings teachers have learned to talk together with more candor and greater sincerity. There has been more concerted effort to help one another learn to deal with pupils rather than subject matter.

Another teacher's contribution was

The study has been quite helpful in carrying on a continuous evaluation of what we do with pupils. It has furnished a common ground for discussing pupils' problems with other teachers. For example, I have had to talk to several teachers

about one of my boys who is a behavior deviate. They seem interested in helping deal with his problems; he has mind blocks in many situations where he is tested as an individual—tests, sports, etc.; he is in love; he is nervous. We think we have helped him some."

A second major value was summarized as follows: *Teachers have become more sensitive to the significance of pupil behavior in relation to the curriculum experiences provided, and they have gained some skill in dealing with some of the problems of pupil behavior in ways that are sound educationally.* Teachers' statements which support this value were numerous.

During the operetta rehearsals many home-room teachers inquired as to how some of their charges were meeting certain situations. Their attitude seemed not to be that of wanting to scold the pupil in question, but to see what else they could do to help him and to evaluate to what extent guidance was being effective.

Another teacher comments:

I am sure I have gained a great deal in my understanding of the adolescents' characteristics and their behavior. At Christmas time several girls stayed out of school in the afternoon to decorate for a dance. While I did not approve of their absence, I was able to understand the vast importance of such an occasion in their lives and could view the whole situation with more equanimity than I would have been able to achieve a few years previously.

A third statement similar in content is:

I believe it has made me more aware of the individual pupil. I have noticed that some pupils work under embarrassing situations while others are perfectly free. (Such as giving a talk before the class.) I believe I've been more aware of various skills each pupil possesses not only in reading, writing, etc., but in playing the piano or ball as well.

A third major value was stated in this manner: *The study of persistent life situations of students has helped teachers do a better job of evaluating the total school program.* There was general agreement among faculty members on this value as practically all of them made statements bearing on evaluation of their work in relation to persistent problems of the pupils. Here are a few such statements.

As a teacher I am constantly trying to evaluate what I do and the way I do it. I am more aware of some of the problems pupils face, and I think I can do a better job of helping them to meet these.

In evaluating the school operetta, the persistent life situation approach seemed to come quite naturally. It helped teachers to be more objective in forming judgments.

I realize that the work done in home living lends itself unusually well to this type of study. However, I feel that, since I have been watching for opportunities to make the work increasingly practical, I have found many more of them and that it has carried over into the homes in such a way as to constitute good public relations. One mother respectfully inquired how I had managed to get her daughter interested in setting the table and in doing the dishes. Another mother reported that she was especially glad to have the recipes which the girl brought home as they added variety to the family menus. Another girl, anxious to lose weight, has worked out and cooked the proper diet for herself and her brother.

This continuous search for the special problem of the different students and the meeting of these in some measure adds greatly to the interest and enthusiasm of the teacher as well as to the knowledge of the pupils.

This paper has been a sketchy presentation of an interesting and profitable study. I have not presumed to say or imply that we think we have all the answers about common learnings. I have described what is really the initial step a school must take if it takes seriously the matter of a curriculum to any extent based on common learnings. I could spend an equal amount of time in discussing problems which are as yet unsolved as we work at improving our educational offering for our junior high-school youth.

Group VIII—Room 402

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What Are the Functions of a Community College?

FRANK B. LINDSAY

THERE is a lot of talking and writing today about the idea of a community college. Sometimes one almost wants to paraphrase the words of the old spiritual: everybody talking about the community college "ain't goin' there;" for the divergent claims for the community college voiced by different people somewhat resemble the assertions of the blind men who stumbled on an elephant. There is much ado about the grasping trunk of vocational education or a panicky hanging on to the attenuated tail of classical tradition, both in the name of the community college. In their blindness they overlook the great body between, the breathing and heart-pulsing reality that makes the idea of community college vital and significant.

For the community college is as American as apple-pie or baseball. It is as linked to common folk. It is a third stage in the upsurge of the people of our democracy in their groping and upward reaching toward a kind of education that will sustain democracy and carry it forward. A hundred years ago in these United States it was determined that common schools at public expense should be the birthright of all children. Near the opening of this cen-

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tury the American high school had taken form. Again in response to popular demand a third structure of free public education is now emerging to take its place side by side with the elementary and secondary schools. It is pointless to characterize the community college as an upward extension of the high school or a lowering of the college tradition. A community college is itself. As the high school was invented to provide services needful to adolescents, the community school is being created to give young and older adults the manifold services they have need of from time to time.

Any consideration of the community college must begin with the community itself. The American community is the unit of American democracy and nationhood as the cell is of a living organism. Like the family unit from which each of us derives his individuality as a human being, the community unit creates his personality as citizen and workman. The American community is the carrier of American culture. It is the community that gives character and vitality to a community college.

To try to explain the spread of the idea of a community college solely in terms of the impact of modern technology upon the American way of life is to miss the main point. There could be other answers to demands for job training and refresher courses, as the manual training and trade schools and technical institutes in the past have attempted to do. The community college rests upon a secure foundation in the essential idealism of the American community itself. It is creating the community college as the vehicle of democracy.

For Americans want their children on coming of age to find themselves confident and able as persons, parents, citizens, and workmen, especially in these confusing and frustrating times. Frustrating when people try to use old familiar ways in new and inappropriate situations; and confusing because alien ideologies twist the hallowed words of democracy, liberty, and civil rights to opposite meanings that deny the very uniqueness, integrity, and dignity of every man. The American community somehow senses that there is need for all of its members, youths and adult persons, to be restored to a singleness of mind and purpose and to find again a unified direction of living. It is devising the community college to achieve this end as successor to the town meeting of other days.

IT IS THE PEOPLE'S COLLEGE

Accepting the thesis that a community college must be a product of community aspirations and thinking together, this article proposes to outline five criteria whereby a community college may be judged as to whether it is fulfilling the ends for which it is established. A first criterion is that *the community college is concerned for people; it works with and for people*. In this it differs from the liberal arts college of a former day or the university of the

present. Because the sense of unity of a community was once adequately achieved through the daily contacts of its members as they went about their normal business, the liberal arts college could concentrate for its contribution to the general welfare upon the ideas which underlay western Christian civilization embodied in the principal writings of the Greeks and Romans and Hebrews—scientific inquiry, law, and moral code. It was the day of the village blacksmith when children coming home from school looked in at the open door; the lessons of mutual help and co-operation and the worth of each man's work in the scheme of things were clear and could readily be learned. But today the meaning of work and habits of co-operation must be made an item of schooling. The community college must focus first upon people.

It has been a fatal defect of too much education to ignore people. Cotton or steel or transportation have been studied as though people did not matter. There could be no steel industry without the men who make the steel; the very significance of steel resides in the minds of men, from iron puddler to plant superintendent, from railroad section-hand to locomotive engineer, who know how to make and use steel, to have it serve the needs of people. The story of cotton is the lives of sharecroppers and mill hands; woven into the cloth are the toil and sweat and tears of children, women, and men. History has been taught as events and dates; but a civilization is only a name for the mass feelings of people, their loves and fears and hates and ideals they lived and died for. The community college has been born to restore people to their place in the processes of industry and government and all departments of human living. In this respect a community college must always differ from a university. Its students and teachers must never get so absorbed in study and research as to forget their relation to their community. The goal of the community college must be not specialization but education for living among people.

ITS PROGRAMS IS DETERMINED BY THEIR NEEDS

A second criterion for a community college follows immediately from the first. If its business is working with and for people, *a community college must determine its program by knowing the needs of people*. If a community college is to help its students to participate well in community living on all fronts and frontiers, to equip them for their diversity of roles as parents, citizens, workmen, and as persons in their own right, the community as a whole must be in on the planning and reviewing of the college program. There is no community college unless the members of the community sit in as full partners with professional educators.

This means that representatives of parents and youth, of businessmen and laborers at trades and in industries, of professional people, and of all civic and social agencies concerned for the well-being of young and older people must work together to make a community college community-wide in its services. A caution is in order here. The representatives must truly represent, must be

acceptable to the groups in whom they speak. It is all too easy for educators to surround themselves with a congenial "better element" who presume to speak for the community as a whole; but advisory committees must include a cross-section of the entire community if it is to voice the aspirations and reservations of the people as a whole.

Working with an advisory committee is a two-way proposition. It is not assembled just to be told what the college is going to do. The community must have a chance to talk first and to talk back. The responsibility of educators is to bring to its attention matters it should take into account and to translate community needs and demands into workable ways of learning and education. But the community must blueprint the college program after the committee has had opportunity to inform itself and think things over. People can be trusted to think boldly to insure a better future for their children, to sacrifice to make possible a practical education. Whenever a college fails to maintain constant give and take with the families and other community groups it is designed to serve, it begins to fall short of being truly a community college.

THE COMMUNITY IS ITS LABORATORY

A third criterion for a community college is also evident. *The community is the laboratory of the community college for the social and civic development of its students.* Not only must a community sit in to plan the program of study, it should also afford resources for students to become skilled in democratic practices. People have grown impatient of academic disciplines because students have been held too often to a role of passive recipients of knowledge. Libraries and lectures cannot make competent democratic citizens without a proving ground to check ideas against the realities of people. A community college may be judged by the opportunities it provides for its students to experience the operations of community living.

Among the imperative requisites which current circumstances of living demand of a citizen in American democracy is liberation from preconceptions and prejudices and the limitations of personal preoccupations. He must be committed to a sense of public responsibility and personal obligation for sharing in group enterprises. He must blend straight thinking with friendly and effective human relationships. He cannot leave problems of world peace or social welfare at home to the other fellow. And he cannot learn these democratic skills solely out of books. Community living is learned by living in the community. The college can help him balance the needs and drives of youth against the demands of society. The college can help him initiate a continuity of community living which enlarges in scope and values so long as he lives. College learning should be a guide to successful human relationships.

On campus a student must gain realistic practice in responsible group living and co-operative behavior. His instructors must aid him to discover his range of interests and capabilities. By encouraging his individual initia-

tive and orienting him to opportunities, they help him discover himself as a person in relation to the groups of the community. That is why community service is as important for student maturation as other studies. With advisory committees the community college should plan time and place in student programs for community service: for leadership in youth groups, from Boy Scouts to Sunday-school teaching, at 'teen-age canteens and on children's playgrounds, as Red Cross aides and in child-care centers. The college must safeguard the health of students and protect them from exploitation; under adequate direction they should alternate study and field work in areas of significant social service where young people can contribute and acquire standards for intelligent, useful activity in the community.

Another shortcoming of the tradition of the liberal arts college when it has persisted unchanged into the present day has been the preoccupation of its student body with campus life. All too readily do post-adolescents keep to themselves and exclude the world from their concerns. When students drawn from far and near were housed in dormitories among their study halls, there may have been justification for their withdrawing into a life apart. But the community college is founded on the assumption that it is truly as much a part of the community as the students in the homes of the community. Faculty and student must never lose sight of their community. To impose, then, upon students living at home a wholly separate program of campus activities unrelated to the social affairs of the community is to deprive them of essential education in community living. The college must find its satisfaction for the most part in the contributions it helps its students make as younger members of groups already functioning in the community. The business of the college is to infuse into community groups the enthusiasm and energies of its students so that graduation may mark merely their transition from a status of novitiates to fully accepted and capably participating members.

IT PROVIDES A VARIETY OF EXPERIENCES

A fourth criterion of the worth of a community college program is that, in connection with the study of occupations, *a wide variety of student opportunities for work experience in business enterprises of the community is afforded.* The community is a laboratory of business as well as for social studies. Lack of awareness by college students of the manifold range of vocations represented in an average community is frequently equaled only by the general ignorance of the faculty on the same subject. When men in business sit with instructors to formulate programs for vocational education, the college gains insight for advising students. The college cannot meet demands for replacements in the occupations of the community by detailing students to training classes without respect to the kinds of persons they are. Genuine experience under supervision is needed by students to help them find satisfying places in the world of work. And the community college must plan with equal care for the three kinds of persons their students are:

The muscle-minded who find satisfaction in the use of their hands in agriculture, trades, and industries; who work with materials; who manipulate and manufacture

The idea-minded who like words, talk, and books; who become accountants, lawyers, and bankers; who will be scientists in government or business

The feeling-minded whose emotions lead them to create; who are artists at drawing or painting, in music, drama, or the dance; who are journalists or write books

Most students have a definite slant toward one or the other of these varieties of personality; a number will be capable in at least two of these areas. For an individual vocational success and satisfaction may depend upon the emotional tone achieved through finding and following an occupation which engages him in those departments of his being that constitute the very core of the human self.

ITS ADMINISTRATION IS DEMOCRATIC

A fifth criterion is that *a community college is democratic in its administration*. Is the student body government responsible? Is it constrained to act through artificial forms arbitrarily imposed by adults in authority or does it evolve its own modes of government in response to its needs for co-operatively solving its group problems? Are students partners with administration and faculty in determining the activities of the college? May students voice their desires and needs? And are they listened to? As part of its concern for people, a community college must keep aware that students are also people. They become responsible as they are permitted responsibility.

In a community college a teacher must be much more than one who holds classes. The courses themselves are to be constructed in terms of needs of students who take them. If a college course is to be of service to youth, its content will be specified by the varied needs of young people. An instructor directs students to studies in consequence of his analysis with his students of their requirements. Their learning follows from their comprehension of its utility for their personal and social growth. The college instructor cannot content himself only with knowing students as class-members; he must associate with them in the community to understand their moods. His maturity as an adult person is essential if he is to counsel students.

IT IS A PIONEERING INSTITUTION

It is possible that any who have followed the argument of this paper to this point have been distressed by the lack of reference to items rather commonly occurring in discussions of the community college. There has been no word about terminal or semiprofessional education or preparation of students for transfer to the upper divisions of colleges; no mention of classes for adults. The omission has been deliberate. The aim of this article has been to center attention upon essential characteristics of a community college. An institution

that becomes an integral part of its community, that keeps acquainted with the need of community residents and sensitive to them, will surely make provision for particular matters of instruction as required. All too frequently the planning and operation of a college program has ended with formal provision for predetermined categories of students. But a community college cannot afford to entertain fixed convictions until it has explored with the community at large and with successive generations of students the range of services required of it. In accordance with their needs, students can be grouped for instruction but must not be regimented into courses. If each student is studied in terms of his unique personality, his program of education will be a prescription adapted to him.

A community college must be a pioneering institution. It must devise, improvise, and maintain a flexible program. The opportunity of a community college is to find groupings of subject matter in response to the emotional and intellectual needs of people living in these times. The community college belongs to ordinary men and women. It must believe in them and share sincerely the deepest aspirations of their hearts and meet the practical judgments of their minds. The *Framework for Public Education in California* has a statement about school and community which applies with equal force to a community college:

The school and the community are inseparable. The program of instruction derives vitality and purpose from the resources of the community and in turn lifts and enriches the level of life in the community. . . . There is no sharp curricular boundary between the school and the community, since the school is education for community life. The community is the place where students live today and in which they will be occupied tomorrow. Building social sensitivity and concern for the welfare of all in the community is a primary responsibility of the school.

What Are the Functions of a Community College?

GERALD W. SMITH

AS author of this paper, I am drawing upon two principal sources for the development of ideas expressed today. First of all, I am being influenced by statements which have been made by people all over this country who talk and write about the functions of the community college. As a stimulation to thinking I have just reviewed such writings as *The New American College* by Sexson and Harbeson; *The Junior College in Illinois* by Coleman R. Griffith, Provost of the University of Illinois; the articles entitled "The Junior College in Illinois" prepared by the Junior College Committee of the Curriculum Committee of the Illinois Secondary-School Principals' Associa-

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tion edited by Professor Harold C. Hand; "The Junior College" by C. S. Sifferd; "Add Two Years; Then What?" by Kenneth Winetrout, published in THE BULLETIN of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals in the January, 1949, issue; and some of the statements of Walter C. Eells, Leonard V. Koos, and Frank W. Thomas. In general, however, the source of the statements that follow has grown out of the thinking which has evolved during the past four years as I have worked with the establishment of the Moline Community College as Moline, Illinois, and as I have watched it develop in the city.

In 1948 the following statement of purpose and functions was set forth for the Moline Community College.

Extension of educational opportunity to residents of this community on a post-high-school level, with a program suited to the needs of the community, flexible enough to meet the diversity of individual situations, and adjusted to best regarded practices of the times, is the purpose of Moline Community College. The objectives for each year shall continually be:

1. To organize curricula that provide programs for general, technical, business, semi-professional, and special education as the needs are recognized or made known.
2. To organize programs flexible enough to serve any groups who need more educational work regardless of previous amount of schooling, age, occupation, or other factors if it is reasonably within the ability of the school to do so.
3. To work with the industrial, business, and cultural groups or organizations within the community and to solicit their co-operation and advice so that the program of the school may be in fact a "community program."
4. To exercise wise and helpful educational leadership for the community to the end that schools of Moline will be rising at all times to meet their educational responsibilities.

In terms of the statement just given, we who are working together on our staff think about the functions of the community college primarily in terms of the people who are to be served. We list them as follows:

I. TO SERVE

Those twelfth-year students who, because of high scholastic ability and the amount of high-school work already completed, are ready to move beyond the typical twelfth-grade work.

For these people the community college offers an opportunity not equaled in any other place. Even before the twelfth year is over, these people can move ahead with further study and do it at the time they are most ready. Further work in science, in mathematics, in the social studies, in the field of the language arts, *etc.* can be carried on at the advance level as a real challenge to the strong students. Waste of time that so often occurs with these students as they mark time during the senior year waiting for the months to roll by so that they can get on the campus of some college is avoided. Obviously, the community college can meet this function only when it is housed

as a part of the secondary unit in the community. Probably this function is most easily met in those communities where a four-year senior high school and community college program is established as one school, including grades eleven through fourteen. However, this author sees no reason why this function can not always be very adequately met in the five-year units, including grades ten through fourteen where adequate space is available.

Those people who have completed the traditional twelve-year school program and want to continue their schooling at home.

These people divide rather easily into two groups for whom the community college must function. First of all, there is the group desiring to complete the first two years of a four-year college program in the local institution. Without any argument, I think that it can be stated that it is a function of the community college to set up university parallel programs within the limits of its enrollment and facilities for these students. An important function of the community college is to provide these people with two years of university parallel work in a superior manner and at low cost.

The second group of students in this category are those who desire a terminal program. It is the function of the community college to set up curricula for these people that are geared heavily on the side of special vocational interests so that they may move more quickly to their vocational objective. A unique feature of the community college is its ability to give people an opportunity to study with considerable concentration within an area of interest the work they need for developing their vocational competencies. For this group also the community college is ideally suited. Co-operative training programs can be set up in the distributive and technical fields. Apprentice programs can be geared in with this group also. The community college has a very special opportunity to serve this group or high-school graduates immediately upon the completion of their twelfth year and to help them find themselves in those very important years of growing maturity. So often the seventeen- or eighteen-year-old high-school graduate needs a good place to mature and find himself during his eighteenth and nineteenth years. Frequently during the first two post-high-school years, some students mature rapidly beyond anything reflected prior to high-school graduation.

People who have previously terminated their formal school attendance in grades ten, eleven, and twelve or immediately upon high-school graduation and who have learned from experience that further education and training is necessary and important.

It is the function of the community college to establish curricula that provide an opportunity for these people to come back after an interval of employment for study within the area of their interests and needs. Many people find after a period of two or three years of employment or of experience in civic enterprises that they could benefit greatly by further study. The com-

munity college is the best institution conceived to date to accept the responsibility for serving these people.

The Adult Population.

In my own thinking the category of people discussed above includes the adults, but to avoid any possibility of making it appear that these people have been overlooked they are added as a fourth group. It is a function of the community college to provide a very flexible program for every possible kind of adult education that can be provided within the facilities of the school plant and staff available. In order that the community college may serve the groups of people discussed above, it seems to me that another classification of the functions of the community college necessarily follows.

II. TO PROVIDE

The Extended School Day.

The responsibility for providing an extended school day running from the early forenoon hours until the late evening hours appears to me to be mandatory. Co-operative programs and schedules for those people listed in two categories immediately above especially make necessary a school day long enough for people either to go to school and then be employed or to attend school after a day of employment.

Varied Curricula with Varied Time Schedules.

In order that the people listed above may be served, it is also a function of the community college to provide curricula that run all of the way from the standard credit-bearing semester courses to the short-term credit courses and even the noncredit courses. Some classes should meet daily, some periodically during the week, some once a week, and some intensively for only a few days, etc.

Facilities for Allied Educational Groups.

A community college which is serving all of the functions listed above and which has set up a program with the extended day should also co-operate with allied educational groups. Within the program of the community college, arrangements should be made to provide building and room facilities for such agencies as the university extension courses, special educational programs sponsored and organized by local industrial, business, and cultural groups, etc. A community college so operating becomes the natural center for educational enterprises within the community to the limit of its ability to provide facilities.

Promote and be identified with numerous community enterprises such as civic music programs, forums, public discussions, dramatic and literary programs, etc.

III. TO SUPPORT

A community college closely identified with the various programs of the community has an excellent opportunity to participate in many enterprises.

A program designed to support and promote such activities as listed in this heading should be recognized as a regular and important function of the community college.

SUMMARY

The functions of the community college should be determined by the people served and by the nature of the community in which the school is located. Since the community college begins to reach these people near the end of the traditional high-school program and needs to provide educational programs for all of the population beyond the high-school years, it follows that it is a function of the institution to provide a flexible and varied program for the various categories of people described above. To meet the needs of all of these people, it is necessary for the community college to arrange its schedule of classes from early morning until late evening and to make its facilities available to the limit.

Group IX—Room 500

CHAIRMAN: *C. Darl Long*, Principal, White Plains High School, White Plains, New York.

INTERROGATORS AND CONSULTANTS:

T. Smith Brewer, Principal, Huntington High School, Huntington, West Virginia.

Charles F. Allen, Executive Director, State Teacher Retirement System, Little Rock, Arkansas.

How Can the Administrator Deal With Secret Societies in the Secondary School?

A. EWING KONOLD

THE gregarious nature and the emotional development of the high-school age student demands some outlet for self realization during his high-school experience. The ties of loyalty are strong and any opportunity that provides security in a group of his peers is sought after. In a high school that gears the participation program to the constructive welfare of the entire student body, a strong loyalty to the objectives of the school program may be developed within each of the school organizations. An outlet for the emotional allegiance of this age group must be provided and the expression of this allegiance should be facilitated.

In schools throughout our country the emergence of secret or restrictive clubs is not a new thing. Unfortunately many of these organizations have tried to mimic the college fraternity or sorority and have, in most cases, copied

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the less desirable aspects of a type of organization that has no place in a public supported system of free education based on the democratic principles of equality. There is no justification within our educational structure for organizations that have, as their basis, social or economic discrimination. Nowhere within the framework of free public education should organizations be allowed that set themselves apart from the rest of the school for the achievements of their own particular objectives regardless of the effect on their fellow students. The following is a copy of a letter received by a high-school principal by the mother of a girl:

It is with unusual interest that I watch the outcome of the controversy now being held at regarding the sororities and fraternities. I am the mother of a charming and well-bred daughter of the school and will tell my story.

We came here when she began her sophomore year. She soon learned what it meant to any student not to be a member of a sorority. Although attractive, vivacious, and, heretofore, popular, she has never been asked out anywhere because she is not a sorority girl. All last summer it was the same story. Last September began her junior year. During this past semester she was rushed by one of the outstanding sororities and led to believe she would become a member. She learned to laugh again and her heart was happy. She seemed once more like the child I brought out here. When the night arrived to choose the new pledges, a certain member, whom we found later was jealous of her and who had made plans weeks before to blackball her, took great delight in doing so. Since it took two members to make this effective, she chose as the other girl to make it complete one who was a perfect stranger to my daughter. But the deed was accomplished. I cannot begin to tell you what it has done to her. Her spirit is broken and crushed. She has no ambition or incentive to go ahead. She feels inferior to those who are members and has developed a complex which may be carried through life. She reads of the many parties, dances, social activities, and fun of which she has no part. Why? Because she was kept out of a sorority by the petty, jealousy of a girl who wanted to hurt her.

High-school life which should be the happiest, most carefree time of a young girl's life (she is sixteen) has become to her most dull and uninteresting. Do you feel that these selective and secret organizations are a fair and democratic way to start children in life?—A MOTHER

There are many reasons for the prohibition of the secret or restrictive club or fraternity or sorority from our schools. The problem actually is one, not of reasons why they should not exist, but one of how they can be eliminated where they now exist and how we can meet the need of the student who finds satisfaction in this type of organization.

Because secret societies do not exist in your high school today is no reason for complacency or for the assurance that this problem may not appear. As long as the high-school population is composed of adolescents, one of two things will happen so far as fraternities and sororities are concerned. Either the need for group activity, participation, and self-direction will be met by a school program of extracurricular activities, or students will seek to organize groups of their own. When this done and adequate supervision is not provided, these groups will soon begin to take on the characteristics of a secret society. The next step on the part of these organizations generally is to seek

publicity or recognition through fraternity pins, initiation ceremonies, sweat-ers, displays of secret insignia or Greek letters and undesirable social activities. In general, these activities leave a great deal to be desired when measured by acceptable standards of behavior for high-school students.

It might sound trite to say that it is the organization (fraternity or soror-ity) and not the members of the organization that is the real cause of trouble. In many high-school fraternities or sororities throughout the coun-try, I am convinced there are many fine, but misdirected, boys and girls. It is the type of organization, and not the boy or girl within, that causes us con-cern. We know the pressure that group action can exert on an adolescent, and we also know that without proper guidance the adolescent group will often seek the spectacular and daring as a means of securing attention or recogni-tion.

Our problem then, as I see it, and as I have experienced it, becomes two-fold: *first*, where undesirable school organizations do exist, to organize a thor-ough plan of action before making any statement of policy or initiating any program that would require abrupt action, and *second*, of providing activities for the high-school student which are constructive and, at the same time, satis-fying to the participant. In discussing the first point, it is to be remembered that practically every state has a law against secret societies in our public schools. Any administrator facing the problem of secret societies in his school must be thoroughly familiar with all the legal aspects within his own state. It is disappointing, however, to realize that very few, if any, schools have been entirely successful in eliminating secret societies from the standpoint only of their being illegal.

HOW TO ELIMINATE

To the administrator who plans a course of action in a program aimed at the elimination of secret organizations within a school, the following five steps are recommended:

1. As pointed out earlier, know your state laws, their strong and weak points. Even though this might not be the primary basis for elimina-tion, it is important to know how successful it might have been in oth-er school that have confronted this problem. Be sure to know in what manner the laws may have been interpreted by the legal counsel for the department of education or by any court case where it has been applied.
2. Have a long-range program so that one phase of action leads logically to another. Be sure that those who are responsible with you for the program will understand the objectives and sequence. The length of time and the plan naturally will depend upon the strength of the organ-izations, popular support of the organizations, and the length of time they have been in existence within the school.

3. Secure the approval of the program from the local board of education and superintendent before starting the program. If full support is not secured, determine the objections to the proposed program and organize a program that is acceptable.
4. Set forth clearly the objections to these organizations. Point out why they are harmful and then talk over the program with the following groups and secure their help.
 - a. Your own faculty—the great burden of a successful culmination of any program of abolishment will fall in a large measure on them and cannot be successful without their help.
 - b. The student leaders and student groups that are respected by the student body
 - c. The high-school PTA or parents group. If you do not have a strong organization of parents, work on this to build it to the point where they understand the school program and can work with you in formulating a program of action. They can also assist you as an advisory group in determining the philosophy of the school program. Keep them informed on the progress of the program.
 - d. The local newspapers' co-operation should be secured and an effort should be made to reduce publicity regarding the program except in its final phases. It is also important that the newspapers do not emphasize it in the community as a major problem. After all, the major purpose of the school is a successful school program and a happy environment for all of the children of the community.
 - e. Community youth organizations (board of directors, leaders, *etc.*)—the YMCA, YWCA, Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts, Campfire Girls, *etc.*—are generally a source and also examples of worthy programs of youth activity.
 - f. The local or the nearest pan-hellenic group. In many cases these groups will give support to the elimination of fraternities or sororities in the local high schools, since the high-school fraternity and sorority in their activities seem to have borrowed only the worst features of the college fraternities and sororities and, by their actions in many instances, have caused a reflection of disrepute on college fraternities and sororities.
 - g. Consideration, understanding, and, if possible, help from other high schools in the districts or area should be secured. All administrators are somewhat familiar with this problem and will in most cases give what help they can.
5. The fifth and final point is enforcement of the program. There are many suggested methods of enforcement including suspension, withholding school recommendations, withholding school credits, making

membership in a fraternity or sorority a part of the permanent record of the student, and excluding members from participation in any student body activity of any kind, including athletics. Of these methods, probably, the most effective is exclusion from participation. This is effective though only when the program of extracurricular activities is vital and sought after by members of the student body. A stated period of exclusion should be determined for this to be effective.

DEVELOP THE EXTRACURRICULAR PROGRAM

After a program of eliminating fraternities and sororities has been accomplished, a constructive program of student activities is necessary as a deterrent to any desire on the part of students to bring back into existence this form of student organization. In schools where this problem does not exist, as pointed out earlier, there is probably a well-rounded program of student participation. As a part of the full program, then, of eliminating fraternities or sororities, there must be added (to the plans of the administrator) a well-organized extra-curricular program. While these extracurricular activities exists in practically all high schools in the country, certain aspects of the program may be set forth here—

1. In order to secure support and to meet the varying needs of students so that their activities supplement and complement the entire school program, a faculty-student committee on extracurricular activities is urged. This committee can encourage and facilitate the operation of the program by securing advisers for student groups, by giving projects to clubs, and by encouraging the formation of student groups where a need must be met.
2. Wherever possible build and call attention to worthy school traditions and a personal pride in the reputation of the school. Tradition has a salutary effect upon students and can be one of the strongest factors of control and motivation where properly used.
3. Give publicity to school groups and group activities, calling particular attention to the service motive and the constructive aid these groups give to all students.
4. Provide a service project, preferably one that will carry recognition with it, for student groups. A club or student organization will soon die or become ineffective unless there is a real reason for its existence. The students will soon realize the difference between "playing house" and the sharing of confident responsibility delegated to them.
5. Wherever possible utilize joint committees of faculty and students in working on school problems. Even when new buildings are being planned it will be found the students appreciate and will rise to the opportunity of making constructive suggestions. Such groups as joint faculty-student boards of health are effective.

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6. Provide adequate physical facilities in the school plant for carrying on the program of extracurricular activities. These facilities might include such things as student body offices, publications room, recreation hall for evening meetings, student body store and bank, *etc.* Many of these facilities may be used to advantage in the academic program.
7. Encourage the formation of large groups that have an active program such as a girls' drill team, a school honor society, a school service organization, a boys' league, and a girls' league. Help them to attain recognition and develop a active program of service.
8. Provide a time for these groups to meet. If a program of student self-direction is worthy of our time and effort and contributes to the well being of our students, it is worthy if inclusion in our plans of schedule making for the school day. It is recognized that all students will not benefit equally from the program, and it must also be recognized that a varying degree of interest will be evidenced by the students.

SUMMARY

In summary, we find three divisions of the problem the administrator must face as he deals with the problem of secret societies. *First*, the very foundation and philosophy of free public education in our country precludes the acceptance of this type of organization within our schools. *Second*, a well-formulated and complete program must be evolved in eradicating this type of organization from any school in which it now exists. *Third*, a constructive program of student participation and extracurricular activity is an integral part of eliminating high-school secret societies.

How Can the Administrator Deal With Secret Societies in the Secondary School?

MAHLON A. POVENMIRE

ONE of the absolute requisites for any successful stand on the question of secret societies is the unqualified, constant, and continuing support of all members of the administration and of the board of education. When once such a movement against the societies is started, a great deal of pressure is put on all people concerned by a very vocal and able group. A school is fortunate to have a board of education whose members, when once they have made up their minds, are firm in their insistence on compliance with the law and their resolution. Without the support of the board of education it is difficult, if not impossible, to abolish secret societies.

Dealing with secret societies has long been one of the important problems faced by high-school principals. The first general reaction was to ignore

Mahlon A. Povenmire is Principal of the Lakewood High School, Lakewood, Ohio.

them on the assumption that they were a fad and would soon disappear. This proved to be a false assumption. The next method was that of attempting to control them. It was assumed that, properly regulated, these groups might even have certain values for the school; so they were tolerated, subject to certain restrictions. Societies were required to submit lists of members each semester. They were forbidden to pledge junior high-school pupils, hold initiations or other ceremonies that might reflect adversely on the school, wear insignia, or attempt to use influence in school affairs. Generally, however, regulations have proved to be a failure. It is now agreed, almost unanimously, that these organizations should be abolished.

Regardless of the supposed aims of these societies, it has been the common experience of public schools that sooner or later they inject themselves into the life of the school with injurious effects. Since they are not democratic in origin or purpose, they are not interested in the greatest good for the greatest number. When fraternities and sororities are present in a school, sportsmanship, study, and personal achievement generally suffer. Blocks and factions are formed to attempt to control student activities. Initiations are conducted and social activities are held which often bring adverse criticism and discredit to the school. The morale and spirit of the school are weakened.

But the most serious complaint is about what they do to the individual students. Such groups raise barriers between the "haves" and the "have nots" and trade brutally on the social insecurity of the "have nots." For, to the adolescent, the hunger for social approval is as mandatory as the hunger for food. Heavy emotional burdens are often placed on young people before they are mature enough to cope with them. The resulting hurt sometimes causes deep-seated, neurotic patterns in their lives. If the happiness that the fraternity and sorority system gives to a few students is weighed against the unhappiness it causes many others, it is proved seriously wanting.

A BOARD OF EDUCATION CAN MAKE RULES AND REGULATIONS

Regardless of whether or not a specific state law exists, boards of education generally have the authority to prohibit membership in secret societies in their general powers to make rules and regulations for the conduct of their schools. This is the authority being used in Ohio by these boards of education which are seriously attacking the problem. The Ohio law prohibiting secret societies has been weakened by an attorney-general's opinion to the effect that membership in organizations not limited to high-school pupils is not forbidden by the law. However, in no case has a resolution by a board of education prohibiting membership in secret societies of their own definition been over-ruled by an Ohio court.

A typical resolution prohibiting secret societies is the one recently passed unanimously by the Cleveland Board of Education, which reads as follows:

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WHEREAS, a board of education is empowered by the General Code of Ohio to make such rules and regulations as it deems necessary for its government and the government of employees and pupils under its jurisdiction; now, therefore, be it

RESOLVED, that fraternities, and like sororities, being contrary to Law and prejudicial to the best interests of the schools, be and they are hereby prohibited in the schools under the jurisdiction of this Board of Education; and be it further

RESOLVED, that principals in the secondary schools be and they are hereby directed to inform the pupils in the several schools concerning the Law and the rules and regulations of this Board and to require that membership in such societies be terminated; and be it further

RESOLVED, that, if, at the expiration of thirty days after such announcement by the principal, there remain pupils who have not terminated their membership, such pupils shall be forthwith suspended by the principal and such suspension reported immediately to the Superintendent of Schools; and be it further

RESOLVED, that, at the beginning of each subsequent school semester, the principal shall bring the Law and this Resolution to the attention of all new pupils, to the end that such pupils shall understand that they may not organize, join, or belong to such societies.

According to this resolution an organization or society is prohibited in the schools if

1. It is clearly undemocratic in the selection of its membership
2. It produces cliques and factions in the student body
3. It interferes with the normal operation of the student-activity program
4. It advertises in the school, or sells tickets, for an event not sponsored by the school
5. It holds secret meetings
6. It stages initiations in or about the school, or an initiation anywhere which identifies it with the school
7. It refuses or resists faculty sponsorship and faculty supervision.

Whenever the characteristics cited above, any or all of them, become apparent in any organization, no matter by what name it may be known, it becomes a duty of the principal to require that organization to revise its procedures to conform with the policy of the board of education.

In the application of the Cleveland resolution there is no intent to interfere with youth groups affiliated with and sponsored by adult organizations such as Hi-Y clubs, Girls' Friendship clubs, the A.Z.A., the C.Y.O., the De Molay, and other like groups, except that individual members of these groups must not indulge in or about the school in any of the prohibited practices.

In most cases fraternities are easier to eliminate than sororities. Generally the greatest opposition comes from mothers of girls who are members. Membership in sororities is interpreted by many mothers as a symbol that their daughters have achieved social acceptance and serves the mothers' *ego* rather than the welfare of the girls.

THE CASE AT ROYAL OAK, MICHIGAN

A statement released by the board of education of Royal Oak, Michigan, on its procedures in dealing with the problem of secret societies illustrates the

tenacity of sororities in attempting to maintain their organizations and the perseverance necessary to abolish them. The board of education asked that the administration do whatever seemed necessary to discourage and disband sororities and fraternities in the high school. Miles W. Marks, principal of the high school, called the student body together and, after reading and explaining the state law, invited the various groups to submit lists of members and notify him of their intention to disband permanently.

This was done within one week, and the groups were warned that while the school would conduct no special investigations concerning their activities, it would certainly be informed if the groups went "underground" and continued to operate. The members of each group assured Mr. Marks that they had complete understanding of the matter and that they would comply. They were warned that severe penalties would be imposed if violations continued.

Several months later the members of one group were advised by the school administration that an organization which they were setting up under the guidance of a national magazine was only a cloak to hide sorority activities, and they promised not to continue with it.

The following year information came from outside of the school that three sororities were active and operating. The names of the members were secured, and a meeting was arranged with the parents of the girls. At this meeting the law was read, and the history of the violations and warnings was discussed. The next day the girls who were involved were told the following:

1. They were to be denied credit to the extent that they would be ten hours of credit behind their class.
2. The loss of credit could be remedied by attendance at an eight-week summer session.
3. There would be no publicity concerning the individuals concerned.
4. Due to the fact that the information came so late in the semester and plans for graduation had already been made, the young ladies would be permitted to attend Convocation, Baccalaureate, Class Night, and Commencement.
5. Regular diplomas would be issued upon completion of ten hours of additional work, and at that time all credit would be restored.
6. Entrance to college and employment would in no way be disturbed.

The administration felt that sufficient warning had been given to all the students since thirty-three of the thirty-six girls involved were in the school when the first announcement was made. Twelve of these girls were in the group that was warned a second time. The Royal Oak Board of Education believes that, since the students involved knowingly violated the law, they received fair treatment.

Instances such as this illustrate that, important though legal backing is, it is very difficult to abolish secret societies without the support of the community. When there is an understanding of the problem and a knowledge that the school is trying to do something constructive in meeting the social needs

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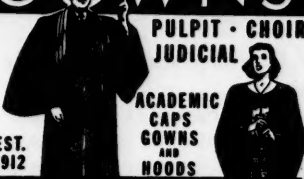
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of the pupils after the groups are abolished, this co-operation is easier to achieve.

The problem, of course, varies in different localities. Each community has its own local social situation to meet. This is often complicated by nationality and religious groups predominating in the community. However, a principal can present a program which is sound democratically and based upon the greatest good for the greatest number. It is then the responsibility of the people in the community to determine whether or not they are willing to accept the program. Their legal representatives, the members of the board of education, should then authorize the superintendent and the principal to put into practice the plan they are willing to endorse. School administrators should not be criticized if they are not authorized and supported by the board of education in the adoption and execution of a workable plan.

THE CASE AT LAKEWOOD

Previous to my counting two years ago, fraternities and sororities were abolished at Lakewood High School. This step was achieved through the efforts of the former principal, Lawrence E. Vredevoe, who is now director of the Bureau of School Services at the University of Michigan in Ann Arbor; and of the former superintendent, Paul E. Rehms, now superintendent of schools at Portland, Oregon. The fact that there has been no evidence of fraternity and sorority activity during these intervening years after these societies had existed for almost thirty years shows that the job was well done.

The plan to abolish these groups began with an analysis by the faculty of the needs they satisfied. Such concerns of youth as the love of adventure and fun, the desire for social recognition and prestige, and the need to feel allegiance to and identification with a group were felt to be not objectionable in themselves. Any of them could be transferred to a school club without too much difficulty. The primary difference between a school group and fraternity and sorority was determined to be the principle of its exclusiveness and its undemocratic selection of members.

In order to avoid the criticism that school groups themselves were fostering the fraternity or sorority spirit, all clubs were asked to operate on an open membership plan. Any club or group within the school and establish of course, its own standards within reason. The boys and girls desiring to join the French Club, for example, would need to have some knowledge of French to meet the qualifications. But whenever a student met the qualifications, whatever they were—physical, moral, or scholastic—he had the privilege of joining such clubs as were recognized by the school.

One of the organizations which had to change the thinking behind its selection of members was the Lakewood Hi Y Club. Although its two chapters had high standards, they were still closed groups. When these two chapters were enlarged to include all the boys in the school who were willing to

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measure up to the standards of the organization, this club grew to nine chapters. It is pleasing to report that five years later there are still nine chapters in the Hi Y which are operating on the open membership plan and contributing greatly to the life of the school.

Concurrently a series of all-school parties was inaugurated to provide social activities which would be superior to anything offered by the fraternities or sororities. The social program very soon convinced the students that here was a very satisfying life provided for them by the school which did not go too deeply into their pockets. At first the secret societies deliberately scheduled their dances to compete with the all-school parties. Within a few months they were tacitly admitting financial reverses by avoiding this competition. By that time organized publicity was giving notice that these groups were not approved by the school. This was followed by steps to remove control of the fraternities and sororities in school activities. Their leaders were dealt with fearlessly whenever they attempted to interfere with the general welfare of the school.

When the need for a satisfactory program had been met and when it was certain that the majority of students would back the administration, the time seemed psychologically ripe for the final step, and the board of education passed a resolution prohibiting membership in fraternities and sororities. It must be emphasized, however, that this resolution was not passed until there was no longer a need for these groups socially. This resolution required that the high school continue to assume responsibility for a broad social program for the pupils and asked school authorities to co-operate with parents and parents' organizations in doing everything possible to maintain and extend the educational as well as the social opportunities for the pupils in our schools.

The harvest from these carefully planted seeds has continued to be rich. Teachers vouch for the fact that the general school morale is better than it was during the time when secret societies flourished. The members of the Athletic Committee believe that it is more than a coincidence that the time of the abolition of the fraternities was also the beginning of a long series of interscholastic championships won by the teams. These were made possible by players with a single loyalty—to the school rather than to a number of spurious organizations that were divisive in nature.

The character building program of the Hi Y and Friendship Clubs, on an open membership basis, now actively involves almost one third of the boys, one half the girls, and one fourth of the faculty. The time and effort spent on this program are being richly repaid by the results achieved.

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more than sixty per cent of the girls are actively engaged in extensive intramural program which includes archery, equitation, swimming, modern dance, bowling, tennis, volley ball, basketball, ping pong, badminton, and baseball. The annual recognition day of Lakewood has shown the students that the school has plenty of honors to bestow on those who give their wholehearted support to school activities. A conscious effort has been made to raise the status of participation in regular school activities. Membership in the student council and other service clubs has taken on increased importance. Publicity is given to students who render community service and to those with outstanding scholarship achievement. All of this emphasis upon activities of the school has shown the students that co-operation with the school brings greater rewards in the form of recognition of services rendered.

The series of all-school parties has been consistently successful. The interest and enthusiasm on the part of students have been maintained through the diligent efforts of student-faculty committees in continually planning interesting and attractive parties. The variety in the plans includes an informal get-acquainted party held in September, a Halloween party, a semiformal dance at Thanksgiving honoring the football team, a formal dance at Christmas, and interesting parties in the spring. This year's Christmas dance held in the spacious quarters of the Mid-Day Club on the twenty-first floor of the Union Commerce Building in Cleveland, was one of the finest since the social program was inaugurated.

While we hear occasionally from people of other districts that we still have these groups underground, there has been no evidence of their existence. If there were such organizations, we believe that we would hear from disgruntled parents of students who were dissatisfied with their treatment. It is the plan of the school to be continually on the alert and to keep the student body informed regarding the policy of the school in its continued determination to enforce the regulation of the board of education. Each new pupil is given a copy of the resolution of the board of education to read and sign. This statement is then kept on file as a part of his school record.

Lakewood has been distinctly fortunate that the present superintendent, Martin W. Essex, and the board of education have maintained a consistent stand with reference to this question. Excellent support has also been given by parent groups in the community. The problem has been attacked in a constructive way in Lakewood, and the high school is a better place because of it.

The question of fraternities and sororities is more than a school problem; it is a community problem. It is difficult for a school system to hope for attainments which surpass the ideals, appreciations, and understandings of the community it serves.

See April, 1950, issue of THE BULLETIN for balance of the Proceedings of the Thirty-fourth Annual Convention of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals.

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